

# CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Volume IV

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## CONTENTS

	PAGE
Editorial Comment and News Notes	129
Facing Realities in Elementary School Social Studies <i>John A. Hockett</i>	136
Maturation as a Factor in Learning <i>Gretchen Wulfinf</i>	148
The Effect of Kindergarten Speech Training on Primary Grade Progress and Achievement of Children with Foreign Lan- guage Handicaps <i>Lorraine Fuller</i>	165
Radio in the Elementary School <i>I. Keith Tyler</i>	174
These "Vegetative" Individuals <i>F. G. Macomber</i>	180
The Place of Individual Instruction in the Integrated Program <i>Ray B. Dean</i>	187
Stamp Collecting <i>Harry L. Buckalew</i>	190

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# CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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Address contributions to Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education and Rural Schools, State Department of Education, Sacramento.

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## EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

### PERSONNEL OF STATE WIDE COMMITTEES

The *California Journal of Elementary Education* for November, 1935, carried an announcement of the state wide committees appointed by Superintendent Kersey. These committees will meet in two sections, one in the north and one in the south, at the call of the chairmen. The initial meetings will be held early in 1936 to plan for the work. Progress reports of committee activities will be made in the *Journal* from time to time so that elementary school educators may be informed of the projects under way.

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## TEACHER EXCHANGES

Exchange of teachers between various parts of the country has real educational value for the school systems effecting the exchange if carefully planned and developed.

Exchanges have sometimes been made to meet the individual convenience of certain teachers who desired to travel or satisfy some other personal desire. Such exchanges have little educational justification. If, on the other hand, two communities in different parts of the country undertook a joint enterprise of exchanging teachers on a professional basis, real educational results may accrue. Will C. Crawford, Superintendent of San Diego City Schools, states that:

To be successful such exchanges should be made on the basis of sending and receiving teachers of outstanding merit who are prepared to participate in professional discussion and to interpret educational procedures and trends while on exchange and on return to their home schools.

The San Diego City Schools, under the direction of Mr. Crawford, are at present developing a limited exchange program based on the following suggested procedure:

1. Teachers should be exchanged in pairs as their collaboration is helpful in both the exchange and home school situations.
2. Selection of exchange teachers should be made by the Superintendent's office on the basis of outstanding ability and fitness for the situation rather than to accommodate the chance desires of individual teachers.
3. Exchange teachers should be prepared to discuss pertinent facts relative to the educational situation in their home system and to make a critical study of important developments in the exchange situation for later discussion on their return to home positions.

Such an exchange program, Mr. Crawford indicates, should be prepared well in advance and the objectives carefully explained to all parties concerned. Other California cities may wish to promote such a program of exchange in the interest of educational advancement of teachers and of school systems.

## WORLD GOODWILL DAY

The World Federation of Education Associations has indicated May 18, 1936, as World Goodwill Day. The cooperation of the members of the National Education Association and others is urged in the promotion of appropriate exercises in the public schools throughout the United States. A *Goodwill Booklet* containing suggestions for exercises may be purchased for fifteen cents each from World Federation of Education Associations, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.



## ACTIVITIES TO BE UNDERTAKEN BY CALIFORNIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION

The following enterprises are to be carried on during the current year by the California Elementary School Principals' Association:

### PUBLICATIONS

The Yearbook, to be devoted to practical phases of the social studies.  
The News Bulletin.

### COMMITTEES

Committees will consider problems relating to topics indicated:  
Educational research, to consider problems of general and specific concern to the association.

State textbooks, to consider problems of quality, suitability, and printing costs.

The maladjusted child, to continue the work initiated in 1934-35.

The Status of the Elementary School Principalship, to promote the study published under the same title as State of California Department of Education Bulletin No. 19, October 1, 1934, and to stimulate further study along similar lines.

Visual aids, to promote the enrichment of the curriculum through the use of visual materials.

Welfare-relief, to study and promote the relationship between welfare-relief associations and the public schools.

## STORY PARADE—A NEW LITERARY MONTHLY FOR CHILDREN

*Story Parade*, a "non-commercial venture" promises to be a delightful new monthly magazine of superior literary merit for children from eight to twelve.

The editors plan to include stories of present day life in this and other countries and translations of stories from foreign lands, historical short stories, distinguished verse, plays for children, and short book reviews.

The contributors to the first issue include Ernest Thompson Seton, Walter de la Mare, Elizabeth Coatsworth, Lois Lenski, and Charlie May Simon. Future contributors listed by the editors are equally well known.

A column of stories, essays, and verse by the magazine's young readers will be a regular feature under the editorship of Hughes Mearns and Ruby Warner.

The Advisory Board of *Story Parade* is an eminent group of nationally known educators, librarians, authors, and poets.

Subscriptions may be had at \$1 per year and should be sent to *Story Parade*, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York.



## REGIONAL CONFERENCE POSTPONED TO MAY 2, 1936

The annual meeting of the executive council of the California Elementary School Principals' Association is scheduled to meet at Del Monte Hotel, Monterey, April 4-6, 1936. Due to the pressure of much business it is deemed inadvisable to hold the Regional Conference of Elementary School Principals called by the State Department of Education at the same time. Consequently, the conference date has been postponed to May 2, 1936, at Del Monte.

## CONVENTION OF ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

The forty-third annual convention of the Association for Childhood Education will be held in New York City, April 28-May 2, 1936, with headquarters at the Pennsylvania Hotel. New York City will afford excellent opportunities for excursions to places of interest; for visiting in many types of schools; for classroom observation of progressive methods in both public and private schools; for observation of work with exceptional children; for visits to health clinics, juvenile courts, child guidance centers, welfare agencies, and many others which work in the interest of young children. In addition to planned observations and excursions, study classes under capable leadership will be organized for discussion and evaluation of these observations and excursions. Four general meetings at which outstanding leaders in childhood education and related fields will speak conclude the three point program plans.

The Association for Childhood Education is organized for the purpose of gathering and disseminating information concerning the education of young children; of bringing into active cooperation all childhood education interests, including parent education; of promoting the progressive type of education in nursery school, kindergarten, and primary grades; and of raising the standard of professional education for teachers and leaders in this field.

## BACK ISSUES OF THIS JOURNAL

A limited supply of back numbers of the *California Journal of Elementary Education* is available. As long as the supply lasts, copies of back numbers to complete files will be sent to elementary schools and junior high schools free of charge upon request to the Division of Textbooks and Publications of the State Department of Education.

## FACING REALITIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES<sup>1</sup>

JOHN A. HOCKETT, *University of California, Berkeley*

### DO WE WANT TO FACE REALITY IN TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES?

It is reported that a visitor to the insane asylum was being shown through the institution by one whom he assumed to be an attendant. The guide pointed out one of the inmates and said, "This is a particularly sad case. The poor fellow thinks he is Napoleon." The visitor seemed duly impressed. "But," continued the supposed attendant, "he can't be Napoleon, for *I* am Napoleon."

Society provides institutions and caretakers for individuals who can not face the realities of life. What should society do with schools that refuse to deal realistically with the conditions and problems of the world they are charged with interpreting to the young generation?

Authorities in mental hygiene caution us to be more seriously concerned over the adjustment patterns of timid children who evade their responsibilities and get their chief satisfactions in day-dreaming, than of those more aggressive and even combative in their reactions. Why? Because the temptations to evasion are subtle, and the natural reactions of the adult tend to indulge and confirm the growing habit. Have we not, as teachers, many subtle temptations to evade our major responsibility—acquainting children with the realities of the world they live in? Realities are often unpleasant, frequently confusing, sometimes dangerous. The easier way is to ignore them. Such a way, however, is tragically unfair to young people. What respect can they have for a school which ignores the basic realities that they dimly sense in the world about them? Can we blame them if our evasion breeds indifference, hypocrisy, disillusionment, cynicism, yes even defeatism and eventual resentment that may result in bitter and violent but unenlightened outbursts? Intelligent and dynamic citizenship can be developed only in a spirit of realism. Realism does not imply sacrifice of ideals, for ideals can be "real-ized" only through honest facing of "real-ities."

In any final sense, evasion is impossible. The school is teaching some kind of social life in all that it does. The important question is whether its aims and methods are intelligently chosen in harmony with the facts of life, or whether they are blindly left to chance, tradition, or some other irrelevant factor. The ability and disposition to face reality are sure signs of sanity and health in the school as in the individual!

<sup>1</sup> An address before the California Teachers Association, Northern Section Institute, Sacramento November 25, 1935.

## WHAT ARE THE REALITIES OF THE WORLD WE LIVE IN?

Probably most persons who have studied history have sometimes wished they might live in an age when great events were transpiring, when momentous developments were in process, when humanity faced a turning point in its career. There is abundant evidence that the present is such a time. I sincerely believe that you and I are living in an age of profound transition, possibly the greatest and certainly the most rapid in all human history. For ten thousand generations, man has labored early and late to produce enough to satisfy his needs. He has earned his bread in the sweat of his brow. He who would not work did not deserve to eat. Of course, there were always a favored few who enjoyed leisure through the generosity or more commonly the exploitation of their fellow men. But there was little enough to go around even under the best of conditions. It is no wonder that man struggled against man, and group against group in order to get a larger share of the few good things available.

All our traditions, all our institutions, customs, points of view, attitudes, all our ways of thinking and behaving have been built up in relation to an economy of scarcity. Now, in our generation, for the first time since man was man, science and technology offer us the possibility of an economy not of scarcity but of abundance. To realize such a happy state involves the most far reaching transformations in every realm of thought and action. Rapidly changing conditions challenge older conceptions of wealth, of public welfare, of private property, of freedom, of individualism, of equality of opportunity, of law and justice, of education, and of democracy itself. It is not strange that the present period of transition is marked by deep seated contradictions, confusions, paradoxes, tensions, and conflicts. This is the kind of world we and our pupils are living in, a world of bitter discouragements and brilliant hopes, a truly fascinating world in which to live and work. Especially fortunate are we as teachers, for we can influence what is to come out of this transition period. It is in our hands, partly or wholly, whether we shall move ahead to an era of splendor and achievement greater than the world has ever known, or whether our hopes shall be frustrated in devastating conflict and chaos. I shall not take time to sketch even in outline the scene that confronts us today. I cannot refrain, however, from quoting from Charles E. Merriam the effective word picture with which he concludes his excellent book on *Civic Education in the United States*.

In moments of industrial insecurity and bitter distress, the possibility of an infinitely richer and finer life for the mass of mankind may seem a mocking mirage. But . . . if there is affliction and bitter distress, it is because we will not reach out and take the gift of the gods in our day. There is food, shelter, clothing, adornment, relief from physical and mental disease, leisure

for the appreciation, enjoyment, expression of the human personality in richest form, if we are ready to reach out the hand and take them, through the social, economic, political arrangements that condition them.

And to produce the will, the skills, the attitudes and aptitudes, adequate to the achievement of the promised land, is the supreme challenge of civic and social education.

If we can look the facts in the face and not deny what we do not like; if we can consult our fears less and our hopes more; if we can think more in terms of the present and future and less in terms of the past; if we can show inventive ability in social and industrial arrangements equal to that developed in technological advancement, we can realize the promise of American life more fully than even the prophets have ever dared to dream.

A prophet might say, this will be; but a scientist may only say, this might be, could be; and a student of political life may point to education as one of the broad highways leading to this future. And a pessimist may say, No, the way is war, revolution, frustration, centuries of suffering, disillusionment, in the great struggle for survival. But the scientist may always add quietly, it could be, now.<sup>1</sup>

#### REALITIES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

Realistic teaching of social studies must recognize not only the realities of the world of men and affairs but also the essentials in the growth of the individual. The process of socialization begins at birth and gradually and continually develops for many years, as many as the individual lives, ideally. The development of individuality and sociality are merely two aspects of the same process. Beginning in babyhood, the child sets out to learn about the world around him. It is undoubtedly at first a "booming, buzzing confusion," as James has said. It does not long remain so. Certain things begin to have meaning. He senses relationships between events that were at first unrelated. He comes to prefer some experiences and to reject others. Learning in social studies begins long before the child comes to school. The least the school can do (and the best it can do), is to aid the child in his compelling purpose of learning about his world. The better we understand how this learning takes place, the more help we can give. Certain essentials stand out.

Learning in social studies is a gradual accumulation of meanings, insights, understandings. One at first dimly glimpses a condition, vaguely senses a relationship. As experience accumulates, the facts and their significance stand out more clearly. Relationships become more definite. As teachers, we need not fear repetition of the right sort. Pupils must meet the same facts many times, in different relationships, if they are really to understand them. A small child knows what an automobile is. He does not know the part it plays in the economic and social life of the community. He does not know how

<sup>1</sup> Charles E. Merriam. *Civic Education in the United States*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part VI. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934, pp. 184-185.

it has made for greater mobility of criminals as well as of doctors and firemen. He does not know of the problems it raises, of traffic control, of drunken drivers, of liability and responsibility. He does not know of the role of the automobile industry in promoting prosperity, of the displacement of men by machinery in the modern factory, of the issue of craft versus industrial unionism, of the tremendous wealth and power of General Motors and The Ford Motor Company. All of these understandings he must gain if he is truly to appreciate the place of the automobile in contemporary life. Such learnings cannot be instantaneous but are the gradual accumulation of many experiences over a number of years. Learning involves new facts, but it also involves new relationships between facts already known.

Learning involves a constant interplay between impression and expression. Seldom do children come into contact with a new conception that they do not try to give it expression. That which is unexpressed is indeed but half experienced. Children dramatizing the life of the home and community in its thousand aspects are not merely playing. They are clarifying and vivifying their conceptions of the things they are trying to understand. We teachers need a more positive appreciation of the importance of expression in learning. Many forms of expression are available in school; speaking, writing, dramatizing, sketching, diagramming, painting, constructing, singing. These expressive arts should not be divorced from the *social studies*.

Great differences exist in pupils' abilities to understand the complexities of social life in a modern, industrialized world. We have learned to recognize individual differences in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Differences in social studies are even greater. Some children, because of native capacity, experience, and temperament, grasp fundamental concepts of social life at an early age. They are then and always will be leaders. Others can learn only the most obvious and concrete facts. They do not easily penetrate to significant but hidden relationships. They must be followers, not leaders. We must endeavor to develop in them such critical ability to select leaders as we can, so that they will not be the pawns of unscrupulous demagogues. The social outlook and attitude of others is warped by unfortunate environments and influences. The school's problem is the difficult one of re-socialization. The penalty of failure is not only crime with all its evil results but the even greater burden of civic indifference and irresponsibility and their inevitable concomitants of corruption and cynicism. Real education in citizenship is something broader than drilling pupils to pass a test on the federal Constitution or meet the norms of the Stanford Achievement Test in history and geography. Nor can any procedure be considered satisfactory that treats all pupils as if they were equal in ability, disposition, or needs.



Elementary school children are not merely preparing to be members of society; they *are* members. They are now important members of home and school groups, with privileges and responsibilities—responsibilities for sharing, cooperating, making contributions of many sorts, for participating in the give and take of shared activities. Children are consumers, of food, clothing, housing, water, public utilities, and a thousand other commodities and services. Children suffer bitterly from low standards of living, unemployment in the family, industrial strife, and insecurity. They are vitally affected by the success or failure of the community to safeguard the life and health of its people and to provide recreational and cultural facilities. Children are subject to the influence of radio, motion picture, newspaper, and magazine. They are affected by omnipresent propaganda, skilfully designed by interested groups to form certain definite habits, emotions, and prejudices. No, children cannot be isolated or insulated from the life of the times. The supreme function of the school is to enlighten their developing experiences, so that they become better informed, more appreciative, and more critical of the many activities of social life. To quote from *Conclusions and Recommendations*:

Organized instruction in the social sciences is designed to hasten, extend and perfect this . . . process of maturing, always building on the actual experiences and powers of the child and never overleaping that frontier of functional knowledge, thought, and will which marks the boundaries of the real world of the learner.<sup>1</sup>

Our greatest challenge as teachers is to devise means, each in his own way, utilizing our own human and material resources, to put into practice such a conception of teaching.

#### WHAT ARE THE POSSIBILITIES IN TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL?

We can undoubtedly make our teaching of social studies more effective in several ways. First and foremost we need a new spirit, a new conception of the task to be done. Our first responsibility, as has been suggested, is not teaching more skilfully a few facts in history and geography but developing socially disposed boys and girls, interested in and informed about their world. To put such an aim into practice implies a reevaluation of our function and importance as teachers. We cannot achieve such a goal by slavishly following the prescribed directions of some assumed authority, whether administrator or course of study. We ourselves must be convinced of the worth of our objectives, and be both *aggressive* and *resourceful* in

<sup>1</sup> *Conclusions and Recommendations, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies*. American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934, p. 56.



devising ways and means of achieving them. We must stop the childish habit of expecting someone to tell us what to do and how to do it.

The development of a citizen covers a longer time span than the elementary school years. We cannot complete the process with twelve- or fourteen-year-olds, but neither dare we neglect the opportunities that are ours. Boys and girls cannot begin too early to be interested in the activities and relationships of social life, to practice and so to make habitual habits and attitudes of tolerance, open-mindedness, and critical evaluation, to glimpse the possibilities of cooperative, democratic living and so to ally themselves with the forces of orderly progress and against those of ignorance, greed, exploitation, and violence. We can help children begin and continue the formation of a sound social philosophy of life. In all their learning they can discriminate between those factors that further human welfare and those that restrict it. They cannot avoid seeing the conflicts of viewpoint and practice that exist in every phase of associated life. It is neither natural nor desirable to remain neutral in the midst of such conflicts. Unless our pupils progressively build a sensitiveness to social obligations and a reasoned allegiance to the ideals of democracy, we are neglecting the dynamics of a constructive citizenship.

The achievement of such objectives as those here suggested will not result from formal, compartmentalized, textbook teaching. Only the most effective mobilization of the whole school program in a consistent attack upon the problem of developing informed, critical, and socially disposed individuals will suffice. Realization of this goal is by no means the exclusive function of the social studies. Its achievement is the only adequate justification for the existence of the school. Let us recognize frankly that the most basic education in social studies comes from participation in the life of the school itself. Autocratic methods of teaching and administration frustrate at the outset any hope of creating responsible, thoughtful, democratic school citizenship. And if we fail in this comparatively simple, immediate responsibility, how can we even dream of succeeding in the more difficult and complex problem of making national and world citizens?

Assuming a school which strives to capitalize the invaluable opportunities for civic education in the daily experiences of boys and girls, certain conclusions regarding curriculum and methods seem inevitable. Cooperative activities must necessarily be the basis of school work. Our inherited traditions of individualism in education are dangerously out-moded in the highly socialized society of today. The traditional ideals of success—beating the other fellow, and making a fortune, through exploitation of others if necessary—which we have

so long held before young people, are not only unsocial but anti-social in the year 1935. Cooperative group activities must be the basis of a large part of the school's work. Cooperative school activities seem to imply integrated projects or units of work in which pupils and teacher set out to investigate various significant aspects of social life. In pursuing the purposes which they have formulated, they necessarily engage in a wide variety of experiences and draw upon the resources and contributions of many fields of study and many agencies. Every skill and ability is employed and improved in order to make the enterprise successful. Oral and written language, reading, study and research, arithmetic—are all indispensable tools. So, too, artistic and other forms of expression are essential means of clarifying the new social insights that emerge as the unit develops. Here dramatic play, more formal dramatization, puppetry, drawing, painting, modeling, constructing, singing, writing and other activities are necessary channels through which children clarify and make their own the new ideas, attitudes, and emotions they are building into their nervous systems.

This brief sketch of the functioning of a socialized curriculum will, it is hoped, suffice to indicate the unique position of social studies in the school program. It is not one of many coordinate subjects. It is inevitably the very heart of the school's program. Its contribution is central as is that of no other subject.

The various social units which comprise the curriculum should undoubtedly be of various types. It is generally agreed that in the earliest grades children should devote a considerable amount of time to exploring the home and community in their simpler aspects. As children become older, there seems to be value in studying the life of simple cultural groups, in which the fundamental human needs, problems, and methods of social control are fairly obvious, and which represent a marked contrast to the conditions we face. Understanding and interest are increased by the study of peoples, both past and present, who live in varied environments. In contrast to the study of peoples, is the study of important aspects of life such as food, clothing, shelter, transportation and of such trends and developments as inventions, the Westward Movement, or the progress of democracy. Some of the units will be largely contemporary in their emphasis, while others will stress the historical development of ideas and practices from earliest times. Provided there be a balanced variety, the specific selection and sequence of units are of much less importance than the spirit and method that characterize their development. To be truly *social* studies, the whole group must participate in determining the purposes and plans that are to be carried out as well as the evaluation of the success of the enterprise. Neither the exact

detailed content nor the specific measurable outcomes can be rigidly prescribed in advance without destroying the spirit of the dynamic learning experience. Equally destructive are inelastic time prescriptions, which allow for nothing better than a smattering of verbal information, or which force the termination of a fruitful undertaking before the group has penetrated to the significant problems, relationships, and developments in the field of study. If it is essential that teachers assume responsibility for knowing their educational goals and devising means and methods of achieving them, it is equally important that they and their pupils be freed from petty restrictions of many sorts that prevent the freest use of their intelligence.

#### CAN THE GULF BETWEEN LIFE EXPERIENCE AND BOOK LEARNING BE BRIDGED?

There is an ever-present danger that schoolroom book learning will be stored by the pupils in compartments more or less separated from the experiences of life. Organization of the curriculum into dynamic and inclusive units of study and activity will go far to prevent this. The result will be especially happy if these units capitalize the first hand experiences and contacts of the pupils with home, family, neighborhood, school, and community. In all of these we find cooperation and potential or actual conflict, division of labor, mutual interdependence, reconciliation of differences, and the close relationship between individual and group welfare. A laboratory of social life, containing the source of materials for social studies, surrounds us on every side. Let us use it more fully and wisely than we have so far done. Let us guide our pupils in studying the thousand ways in which men and women cooperate, and suffer from failure to cooperate, in meeting their needs not only physical needs but aesthetic and spiritual needs as well. Let each unit of study grow out of some present condition or problem and through the study of the past or the remote constantly illuminate the conditions of life here and now.

The older textbook did not contribute to this type of program. Fortunately much new material is being produced which meets the need. Many books, large and small, adapted to a flexible, unit program are available. More and better contributions come from the press continually. I cannot begin to enumerate the specific books and series available. Through committees, supervisors, or by individual study of listings and reviews in professional periodicals, you can keep in touch with these developments. *Building America*,<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The title of a series of pictorial instructional units issued monthly October to May by the Society for Curriculum Study, Inc., 425 West 123d Street, New York, N. Y.

a cooperative, non-profit enterprise, promises to be an excellent contribution.

In eliminating the gap between experience and book learning, we shall more and more, I believe, arrange opportunities for pupils to render socially useful services to their communities. Children of earlier generations contributed to the economic welfare of their family groups, an important educative experience. Until quite recently, most young people had their chores and other responsibilities. In primitive societies, participation by the young in the work and play of the group was the chief means of education. Modern conditions render direct participation difficult, but not impossible. Junior traffic police in many communities serve a socially useful function. I believe we can discover other possibilities if we will put our minds to it. It may in some cases be a survey of the economic, recreational, transportation, or other resources of the community. In others, it may be projects in conservation of birds, trees, crops, and other economic or recreational resources. Projects in which pupils and parents might work together would seem to promise many valuable experiences for children.

#### SHOULD PRIMARY EMPHASIS BE ON PAST OR PRESENT?

If I were forced to answer this question categorically, I should urge that major emphasis be placed on the present. The boys and girls of today (the men and women of tomorrow) are justified in expecting an education primarily devoted to giving them an accurate, and insofar as possible a complete, understanding of the world of the present and of the problems and possibilities that lie ahead. The problem, however, is not so much one of striking a fifty-fifty, or a sixty-forty, balance between present and past as it is of defining the relationship of past, present and future. Past, present, and future are parts of one continuous whole. The present cannot be understood apart from the developments that have preceded and caused it to be what it is. On the other hand, study of the past may be amusing or entertaining but it has no practical value unless it helps us understand the forces, conditions, institutions, and trends that exist today. Significant realities of both past and present must be comprehended if we are to anticipate and control the course of future development. The important criterion is not how much history is learned, but whether it is learned in such a way as constantly to clarify the complexities around us and to illuminate the path ahead. "To be educated," once said an illiterate colored boy, "is to be able to read the signs at the crossroads and tell which way to go." A profound definition! In accord with this standard, pupils

might learn (and forget), fewer facts in history, but there can be no doubt that history's contribution to understanding the world of today and tomorrow would be vastly increased.

### SHOULD HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY BE FUSED?

This is one of those incriminating questions like "have you stopped beating your wife?" To answer yes or no is unfortunate. There is no point in fusing perfectly good geography and equally good history just to get scrambled social studies. What we need, as I have tried to indicate, is a suspension of our academic preconceptions in order to face very frankly the realities of the world around us and the needs of boys and girls as they seek to orient themselves in it. Mere academic viewpoints must give way before the urgent necessity of providing realistic understanding and orientation. Twelve-year-olds do not readily digest the heavy specialties of the advanced scholar or any intellectual hash composed of various scraps stirred together.

In my judgment, the concept of fusion leads us astray. The thing we want is integration, an overworked word just now, but nevertheless a significant concept. We want integration within the field of social studies, integration of the whole elementary curriculum, and integration of in-school and out-of-school experiences. We want to bring together in a functional organization all relevant information and all pertinent experiences that will help children comprehend the varied aspects of life. Such organization of subject matter in relation to dominating purposes is the best known method of achieving that much desired educational outcome—an integrated personality.

### WHAT OF CITIZENSHIP AND PATRIOTISM?

Certain conceptions of citizenship and patriotism have been implicit in the discussion thus far. Let us consider briefly what we mean by these terms. Is the good citizen merely one who breaks no laws and who leaves his neighbors alone? This negative idea of citizenship was prevalent in the much lamented age of rugged individualism and still lingers to an alarming extent. Such comfortable complacency permitted our cities to become notorious examples of misgovernment, to mention only one evil result. The greatest evil, however, is the lack of hope, if not downright cynicism, that prevents so many from seeing the possibilities that might be achieved by vigorous constructive citizenship, a citizenship of informed, socially minded individuals cooperating to further the welfare of their neighbors and their community. Let us do all we can to make sure that future citizens have this ideal.



I do not contend that citizenship and patriotism are fundamentally different qualities. Each word, however, is the center of a different set of associated ideas and emotions. If you call a man a poor citizen, he may admit it without great shame. But you dare not call him unpatriotic without running considerable risk, or without considerable risk of running. There is something very fine and noble in patriotism. We need to rescue the concept and all that it stands for from debasement, for the most worthy sentiments can be appropriated and misused by interests that are far from worthy. Jingoistic nationalism and ruthless arrogance are not patriotism. Dogmatic ignorance and blind prejudice are not patriotism. Eloquent verbosity and sentimental emotion are not patriotism. Empty symbolism and ritualistic formality are not patriotism. Autocratic repression of civil rights is not patriotism. Hitler-like vigilantism is not patriotism. Bigoted provincialism is not patriotism. The perpetuation of unjust and undeserved special privileges is not patriotism. Glorified selfishness, in any form, is not patriotism.

Patriotism is loyalty in thought and deed to the highest ideals of our country, to the most profound aspirations of humanity. Our country has noble ideals; it was "conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal." The worth of the common man, his right to "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness," is the cornerstone of our democracy. This ideal, proclaimed one hundred sixty years ago in a relatively static, agrarian civilization, is in great need of reinterpretation in this dynamic age of power and machines. Shall we help young people discover what democracy means in 1935 and the years ahead? How dare we neglect the obligation!

Since patriotism is so frequently made an abstraction, divorced from its intimate connection with the welfare of specific human beings, we can profitably ponder the following words of George A. Coe:

When we realize that simple, homespun neighborliness, organized and in action, is the lifeblood of any nationalism that is worthy to exist, we have in our hands the clue to the meaning that patriotism should have for the school. Patriotism, if it is realistic and not visionary, is an attitude towards concrete human beings; love of country is love of Jack, and Mike, and Hans, and Ole, and Giuseppe, and all the members of their families. The reality of "my country" is these persons; the finality of my country's claim upon me is the finality of the worth of these persons. The 'national interest' concerns their development and happiness, and—fundamentally—nothing else whatever.

The significance of 'our' history and of 'our' land is that here a large-scale fellowship of persons actually has formed itself; that it has held together through generations, and that it now exists, with yourself and myself privileged to be members of it. To be devoted to my country is to maintain and promote, as far as in me lies, this cooperation, this mutuality of persons, this achievement together of a satisfying life.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> George A. Coe, *Educating for Citizenship*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932, pp. 195-196.



I wish we might arouse in response to this great challenge of building together a fine, peaceful, cooperative, democratic life an enthusiasm comparable to that which Mussolini arouses in the exploitation and enslavement of a harmless African people. I wish we might create a unifying zeal such as one may witness on any college campus in anticipation of a football contest. I wish we might attack the problem of making America safe for democracy in 1935 with at least as much devotion as we exhibited in trying to make the world safe for democracy eighteen years ago. Surely, the danger is greater now than then.

If you have wished to live in a critical period, when great events were taking place, if you have wished you might have a part in determining the shape of things to come, the present challenges you beyond your wildest expectations!

## MATURATION AS A FACTOR IN LEARNING

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### PART II<sup>1</sup>

#### STUDIES IN READING AND ARITHMETIC

##### READING READINESS

Two inquiries into the subject of reading readiness have been made by associations of kindergarten or kindergarten-primary teachers. The first, by the International Kindergarten Union (64),<sup>2</sup> was based on a questionnaire answered by 560 first grade teachers in scattered sections of the country. Over 90 per cent of the teachers felt that they were expected to teach some children to read before they were ready. They estimated that approximately 20 per cent of their pupils did not show reading readiness at school entrance. The fact that 42.3 per cent of these children were between six years and six years, six months in age would indicate that chronological age is not the deciding factor in determining readiness.

The second study of this nature was made by the Research Committee of the California Kindergarten-Primary Association (51) in 1928. Replies from all parts of the United States showed that approximately 28 per cent of first grade entrants were not ready for reading, because of language handicaps or mental immaturity or a combination of the two. Homogeneous grouping of children who have language handicaps or lack of mental maturity was found to reduce non-promotions from 30 per cent to 5 per cent.

*Mental Age as a Measure of Reading Readiness.* Several investigators have studied the relationship of mental age to reading readiness. Dickson (50), after a year and a half of study, found that "most children who fail in the first grade show mental ages below six years and IQ's below normal." He recommended the plan of segregating pupils in the first grade on the basis of mental age.

Five years later Arthur (45) published the results of a study carried out in the first grade classes of Chisholm, Minnesota. The children were grouped for instruction according to mental age, and at the end of the year given tests in word reading, phonetic reading, and comprehension. While some of the group succeeded with the

<sup>1</sup> Part I of this article was published in the November, 1935, number of this journal, pp. 72-84.

<sup>2</sup> Numbers in parentheses refer to the references at end of article.

first two tests at an earlier mental age, results of the comprehension test showed that

. . . a mental age of six to six and a half was in general necessary for standard first grade achievement. For those children who had mental ages from six and a half to seven years, the returns on the effort expended were very materially increased.

Morphett and Washburne (62) studied the problem of reading readiness during the school years 1928-1929 and 1929-1930. The Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test and the Stanford Revision of the Binet Scale were administered to all first grade children. Progress in reading was measured the first semester by the accomplishment of thirteen progress steps in the Winnetka individualized reading material, and by recognition of 37 sight words. Correlations between reading ability and intelligence from .50 to .65 and from .49 to .58 were obtained on the basis of the Detroit and Stanford-Binet tests, respectively. Satisfactory achievement in reading was made by children with mental ages of six years or above as measured by the Detroit test or with mental ages of six years, six months, or over on the Stanford-Binet test.

The second year the Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test and the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test were used to measure intelligence, and tests for measuring reading at the end of the year included the Gray Oral Reading Check Test and 137 sight words. The results were similar to those obtained in the earlier experiment. The authors concluded:

. . . it seems safe to state that, by postponing the teaching of reading until children reach a mental level of six and a half years, teachers can greatly decrease the chance of failure and discouragement.

Directly opposed to the efforts to postpone reading instruction is the study of Davidson (47) who taught children of a four-year mental age to read. Her subjects included five bright children (C. A. 3-0 to 3-4), 4 average children (C. A. 4-0 to 4-6), and 4 dull children (C. A. 5-0 to 5-6). Each group was taught separately daily for approximately 80 days, the actual instruction in reading occupying only ten minutes of the hour and a half during which the group met the examiner. Final tests showed the bright group to be superior in reading ability, with the average group only slightly superior to the dull group. On a retest four months later results in the vocabulary test were poorer than results in reading in context. The author concluded that some children of a four-year mental age can be taught to read in as successful a manner as the average first grade pupil. Reports of subsequent progress, however, mentioned briefly in the study, indicate that the young children who

learned to read, unless practice was continued, lost the technique completely, and upon entrance to first grade, were forced to learn reading from the beginning.

*Experience as a Factor in Reading.* The foregoing studies emphasize the mental ability necessary to learn to read. Waters (67), a kindergarten teacher, realized the importance of a child's experiential background in the reading process. She examined fifty primers and first readers, and listed the concepts appearing in the books. By means of pictures, questions, and discussion she ascertained her pupils' knowledge of those concepts. During the remainder of the year she attempted to build up their experiences through stories and dramatization, excursions, projects, and wide acquaintance with manipulative materials. She does not report the success of her pupils in reading in first grade as a result of this year's program, yet her approach to the problem is one worthy of attention.

A detailed and valuable account of a non-reading program for first grade pupils is given by Wright (68). While there are no test records to show the accomplishment in reading when the subject was introduced in the second grade, Miss Wright reports:

All but three or four of the children responded to the introduction and study of reading in the second grade with pleasure, and a few of them with eagerness.

The delayed reading program, however, made possible the development of personality and of reading readiness by: (1) supplying a background of experiences in the children's environment built up through excursions, discussions and stories, and experimentations, (2) providing the opportunity for creative reorganization of thought and for dramatic expression, (3) developing concepts of form, principles of building, and initiative in planning through block play, (4) providing for social adjustment to other children, and (5) establishing reading readiness consciously built up through rich experience, use of language, and acquaintance with books. Many of the children's experiences formed the first stories in learning to read the next year, while others were used for reading later as reading ability developed.

*Reading Readiness Tests.* Many investigators have felt that mental tests, while having some predictive value for beginning reading, are not sufficiently valid to be used as the *only* measure of reading readiness. Attempts have been made, therefore, to construct reading readiness tests, which will measure more accurately than mental tests those functions upon which success in reading depends. An early study was made by Smith (66) in which beginning first grade children were tested on their ability to match single letters (both capitals and lower case) and three-letter nonsense syllables.

After twelve weeks of instruction, the children were given the Detroit Word Recognition Test. The author found a correlation of .87 between matching ability and reading ability. She concludes:

The results of the investigation described above would lead us to believe that some measure of matching ability would be highly prognostic of possible success in reading.

Deputy (48) designed four tests to measure reading readiness: word selection, visual-auditory association, visual-visual association, and content comprehension and recall. These were administered individually to entering first grade pupils, and were supplemented by the Pintner-Cunningham Mental Test. Reading achievement was measured during the thirteenth and the eighteenth weeks of instruction by means of two specially designed tests using the vocabulary the children had studied, the Detroit Word Recognition Test, and the teachers' judgments. A correlation of .70 was found between reading ability (composite score on the three tests) and the Pintner-Cunningham test, the best single prediction of success. When the scores on the four readiness tests were combined with the Pintner-Cunningham scores, the correlation with reading ability was .75, indicating that the readiness tests measured some traits not measured by the mental test. The author concludes:

There is a group of factors, such as, interest in stories, pictures, things, people, and surrounding life, the number of stories read or known, the extent to which conversation is carried on with others—that is, the child's proneness to things verbal in general—which, no doubt, are significant in a study of reading readiness, but a thorough and objective study of all these factors would constitute an investigation in itself.

Basing their research upon Smith's (66) suggestion of matching ability as a measure of reading readiness, Lee and Clark (61) constructed a reading readiness test. They also designed a reading test based on the Child-Story Primer<sup>1</sup> which, with the Gates Primary Reading Test, was used as the measure of reading ability at the end of the first semester. A correlation of .68 was found between the Lee-Clark Readiness Test and the Lee-Clark Reading Test using as subjects pupils with kindergarten experience. A correlation of .40 between mental test scores and reading scores from the Detroit Reading Test led the authors to regard their test a better means of predicting success in reading than mental test scores.

Yageman (69) studied the relative prognostic value of the Stone-Grover Classification Test for Beginners in Reading and the Stanford Revision of the Binet Scale. Tests of reading ability were the Gates Primary Reading Test and the Pressey First Grade Vocabulary Test,

<sup>1</sup>FRANK N. FREEMAN, and OTHERS. *Terry and Billy. Child Story Readers.* California State Series. Sacramento: California State Printing Office, 1929.



administered after eight months of instruction. The author concludes:

The study seems to indicate that both the Stone-Grover Classification Test and the Stanford-Binet Scale have prognostic value with regard to reading readiness. However, while Group I, with a minimum (mental) age of six years four months, has achieved a median score of 44.5 (superior rating) on the Stone-Grover Classification Test, and a median reading achievement of 9½ months (also superior), Group II whose mental age range is below six years four months and whose achievement median on the Classification Test is 34.5 (average rating) shows a median score in reading of only 4½ months which can not be considered average for eight months of instruction.

There are now available several standardized tests designed to measure reading readiness.<sup>1</sup>

*When Should Instruction in Reading Begin?* It is interesting to note, in connection with a discussion of reading readiness, the opinions expressed as to the most desirable age for learning to read. As early as 1898 Dewey (49) said:

While there are undoubted exceptions, present physiological knowledge points to the age of eight years as early enough for anything more than an incidental attention to visual and written language-form.

Patrick (63) in 1899 questioned whether children should be taught reading and writing before the age of ten. Johnson (60) would postpone reading instruction until the ninth or tenth year. Courtis (46) states:

It is now quite generally believed that a child must have a mental development of approximately six years before it is profitable to give him training in reading activities.

Irwin (59) presents another reason for delaying instruction in reading:

It is not on a physical basis alone that modern educators feel that more maturity is desirable before the technique of reading is attacked. Children who remain in the home until six still have something to learn of the world by actual contact before they begin to gather vicariously a group of impressions of what it is all about.

Probably the most sound opinion on the subject is that held by many educators today, and ably stated by Reed (65):

The place in the school organization for reading to begin should then be made to depend upon the time when and the grade where a child shows reading readiness. Psychologically, a mental age of six has been fairly scientifically selected as the time. Traditionally, the first grade was arbitrarily selected as the place. Practically, it may be the kindergarten, or the first grade, or the second grade; the criterion for placement being *readiness to read*, that is, social, physical, intellectual, emotional, and mental readiness. It would be as unjust to deprive an overbright child of four the joy

<sup>1</sup> A list of such tests is found on page 160.



of learning to read as to force the mentally deficient child of eight to attempt the drudgery of reading.

Clearly, the determination of reading readiness is a difficult task. At the present time fairly adequate measurements of mental age are possible; physical maturity can be determined in various ways; general physical condition, including the adaptation of the eyes to close work, can be learned; readiness for reading as the tests measure it, may be determined; some record of the child's social and experiential background and of his emotional patterns may be obtained, though less objectively. The important thing for the educator to realize is that all these aspects of readiness for reading are important. It is as unsound for a teacher to determine the "educative moment" by means of one criterion as it was to consider all children who had lived six years ready to be taught to read.

#### ARITHMETIC READINESS

Scientific attempts to determine arithmetic readiness have been less numerous and, on the whole, less valuable than those to determine reading readiness. There has been a tendency in recent years, once the so-called useless aspects of arithmetic were deleted from the textbooks, to believe that what material remained constituted the bare fundamentals which every child must master. Accordingly, instruction went on much as before and arithmetic courses of study were organized in the same logical order that had been followed for years.

An investigation carried on by the Committee of Seven, Northern Illinois Conference on Supervision (87, 88, 89) confirmed the belief that schools have attempted to teach certain aspects of arithmetic before the pupils were sufficiently mature to profit by the instruction. This investigation extended over a period of several years and involved children of 148 cities. By a rather elaborate procedure the Committee determined the mental age at which 75 per cent of the children mastered a given process, presumably the minimum mental age for beginning such instruction, and the mental age above which learning ability failed to increase significantly, an indication of the maximum mental ages for beginning such instruction. While these mental ages are variously reported in different published reports of the Committee, and while the technique of the investigation has been severely criticised by an assistant in the research (84), the investigation doubtless has been valuable in emphasizing the need of adapting the material taught to the maturity of the children.

Pressey (83) reports a survey of ability in arithmetic fundamentals made by Arnold among college students. He found that 10 per cent

failed, on a 20-problem test in long division, to get a single problem right; 18 per cent failed to multiply a single problem in common fractions correctly; and 20 per cent were unable to do any of the 20 problems in division of decimal fractions. Pressey (83) also describes a study by Himebaugh involving 126 college students. When asked to define 20 of the most common units of measure, 58 per cent showed a lack of any knowledge of the unit. And yet these fundamentals were without doubt "taught" in the elementary school.

The arithmetic textbooks<sup>1</sup> now in use in California represent a step toward postponing the more difficult phases of arithmetic. The changes in grade placement of topics as described by Potter (82) include: no formal arithmetic before the third grade, multiplication beyond the 2's and 3's moved to fourth grade, long division postponed until the fifth grade, and division of fractions and the entire subject of decimals to the sixth grade.

*Number Knowledge of First Grade Children.* Several investigators have been interested in the number abilities of children entering school, in order that later instruction might be based upon that knowledge. Douglas (77) wished to ascertain the number concepts of pre-school children. He realized that ability to count may not necessarily mean a number *concept*, and for that reason, tested his subjects for ability to recognize numbers in groups without counting. In a series of three tests, he found that all the kindergarten and pre-school children had thorough concepts of 1 and 2, that most of them knew 3 also, and more than half had a knowledge of 4. Beyond that point concepts were very meager. He concludes that

The development of number concept is a function of age and the concomitant educational development of children.

Buckingham and MacLatchy (73) interviewed 1356 children to determine their number abilities at school entrance. They found that 90 per cent could count to 10, 60 per cent to 20, 12 per cent to 100, the median being 27 or 28. Ability to count by 10's was considerably less. Ninety per cent could enumerate objects to 10, 85 per cent could select 5 objects from a larger group, 81 per cent could state the number of objects in a group of 5, a considerable number could give answers to simple addition combinations presented in verbal problems, while more children were successful with similar problems involving objects.

MacLatchy (78) in a study conducted in the first grade classes of Cincinnati, gave the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test in addition to the arithmetic tests.

<sup>1</sup> Leo J. Brueckner, et al. *The Triangle Arithmetics*. California State Series. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1932.

The children were classified in three groups on the basis of mental ability. Median performances of the three groups were found to be as follows: superior group; counting to 27, arranging groups of 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10 objects correctly three times in three trials (naming 5 and 6 objects three times in three trials) and 6.8 correct solutions to addition combinations presented in problems; average group, counting to 21, arranging groups of 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10 objects correctly once in three trials, and 4.8 correct solutions to addition combinations presented in problems; less than average group counting to 12, unable to arrange groups of objects numerically, and 1.5 correct solutions to addition combinations presented in problems.

Miss MacLatchy discovered, however, that there are many gaps in the individual child's knowledge, and that his methods of manipulating numbers are often cumbersome.

A fourth study to determine arithmetical backgrounds of young children was made by Woody (90). Children of kindergarten and first and second grades in 39 school systems throughout the United States were given tests of 205 arithmetic situations consisting of rote counting, counting by enumeration, recognition of numbers as a group, reading numbers, size of numbers, telling time, fractions, money, linear measure, liquid measure, simple problems, and exercises in addition and subtraction. He found that children have a considerable knowledge of counting even before formal instruction in arithmetic is given, and that ability in counting increases from grade to grade. They have, also, some knowledge of halves, thirds, and fourths, and understand their meaning. Some children in each grade, as shown by the tests, knew nearly all the combinations on which they would be drilled in the first year of arithmetic. He concluded, however, that his results were open to question if the clumsy working methods of the children were considered.

*When Should Arithmetic Instruction Begin?* When should formal arithmetic begin? Opinions on the matter have been advanced by a number of persons. Burnham (74) believes that formal instruction in arithmetic probably should be delayed until the age of eight or ten, with opportunities for concrete, spontaneous number experiences before that age. Brownell (70) states that "better results might be secured by postponing all work in number until the second or even the third grade." Wilson (80) would teach arithmetic when the child has need for it and the proper background of experience to profit by it. He suggests number activities appropriate for the kindergarten, and first and second grades which would supply the desired background.

The theory of postponing arithmetic until the third grade or even later may be open to question. The problem here is different

from the problem of beginning reading which involves prolonged use of the eyes and a certain physiological maturity before the technique of reading can be mastered. Arithmetic, on the other hand, need not be a written process in the primary grades—it should rather involve the handling of concrete materials and the development therefrom of concepts of form, size, and relationship. The question should no longer be, "Shall we teach arithmetic in the primary grades?" but, "What arithmetic should be taught?" Buckingham expresses this point of view when he says (86):

The debate as to whether number is too hard for first grade children or too uninteresting or too unimportant is futile. There was a point to the debate when the supposition was that children should begin with the number symbols and drill upon the number facts. But when we have in mind the developing of number ideas and relationships through motivated experience, the question of first grade number is not debatable.

Children have need for number long before it is necessary to begin the formal teaching of arithmetic. Moore (79) says:

It sounds paradoxical, but it is certainly true that more knowledge of arithmetic is really *needed* during school hours by children in a fairly good kindergarten than in a formal traditional second grade. The former are actively engaged all day in work and play. They are handling a variety of materials and fitting them to a variety of ends; and wherever such activity is going on, concepts of magnitude, quantity, and relation are constantly called for. In the formal second grade which we have in mind the children sit still and do nothing; there is not a scrap of material to do with; they are out of touch completely with the real child-world of work and play. It is obviously impossible for any genuine need for computation to arise here.

A valuable study of the actual number needs that developed in units of work is reported by Hanna (86). Six third grade teachers and six sixth grade teachers kept a detailed account of the number needs in their classrooms for two periods of two months each. The total needs of the third grade children were 234, of the sixth grade children 205. The conclusions are of interest: There was a wide range of problem situations in both grades; grade 6 used more computational problems than grade 3, and their problems were more complex; multiplication was the most used operation in the combined grades, division the least used; nearly one-half the computations were with integers, the next most frequent with decimals (money); very few problems involved fractions, mixed numbers, or decimals (other than money); measuring, counting, comparing were the most frequently used noncomputational problems; graphing and scale drawing seem important in grade 6; the use of fractions in both grades was very simple; decimal problems were chiefly of money transactions.

The author states that it is impossible to teach arithmetic solely through an activity program, but that the activity program is splendid in building number meaning before drill is attempted. He suggests a national survey of situations in which children feel the need for arithmetic as a basis for the reorganization of arithmetic teaching. The need for such reorganization he expresses as follows:

Undoubtedly there are many aspects of arithmetic now taught much too early—before the meaning and need have been experienced by the pupils. Also, many aspects considered essentially as parts of a carefully planned, sequential, and systematic program would be learned inductively, out of their logical order.

The trend in the grade placement of arithmetic is aptly stated by Brownell (86) when he says the tendency in teaching arithmetic is to "spread" the instruction in various topics over a wider span of grades. For example, some aspects of common fractions are well within the grasp of primary children, others should be deferred until the intermediate or upper grades. There is little justification for teaching all about fractions in a single grade. The early grades may well develop the basic meanings of fractions so that later instruction in their manipulation will be meaningful. Similar "spreading" in other topics—multiplication and division combinations, the various steps in long division—is recommended. Thus the instruction might be paced to the child's needs and the harm done by too early instruction obviated.

#### SUMMARY OF READING AND ARITHMETIC STUDIES

A summary of the studies reported in the foregoing pages follows:

1. Early inquiries by kindergarten-primary associations (51, 64) into the subject of reading readiness disclosed the fact that many children who enter first grade are not ready for reading. Teachers felt that adaptation of the curriculum to the abilities of these children was needed.
2. Studies of mental age and reading success have revealed the fact that children below a certain mental age usually do not succeed in reading. The mental age required for reading is reported variously: 6 years by Dickson (50); 6 years to 6 years, 6 months, or even 6 years, 6 months to 7 years by Arthur (45); 6 years, 6 months by Morphett and Washburne (62).
3. Davidson (47) taught children of four-year mental age to read, but the skill was later lost in those cases where practice was not maintained.



4. Description of an experiential program designed to build readiness for reading is given by Waters (67) for kindergarten children, and by Wright (68) for first grade children.
5. Tests to measure reading readiness are described by Smith (66), Deputy (48), and Lee and Clark (61).
6. Yageman (69) studied the relative prognostic value of a reading readiness test and an intelligence test. For children with mental ages of 6 years, 4 months or more, the readiness test made fairly accurate predictions; for duller children, actual scores in reading achievement were lower than the readiness test scores would indicate.
7. Opinions as to the proper age for beginning reading are expressed as follows: eight years by Dewey (49), nine or ten years by Johnson (60), ten years by Patrick (63), at a mental age of six years by Courtis (46). Irwin (59) would give the child direct experiences with his world before attempting to build experiences vicariously through reading. Reed (65) would teach reading when the child has attained a "social, physical, intellectual, emotional, and mental readiness."
8. The investigations in arithmetic by the Committee of Seven (87, 88, 89) attempted to establish minimal and maximal mental ages at which a given step should be taught.
9. Pressey (83) reports studies of forgetting in arithmetic among college students which show failure to perform even simple fundamental operations.
10. The present California state textbooks in arithmetic are described by Potter (82). The grade placement of several topics has been advanced in keeping with modern educational philosophy.
11. Studies of the arithmetic abilities of pre-school and beginning first grade children reveal a considerable but "spotty" knowledge of number, combined with cumbersome methods of manipulation (73, 77, 78, 90).
12. Opinions as to the age of teaching formal arithmetic are quoted as follows: at eight or ten years by Burnham (74), in the second or even the third grade by Brownell (70), when the child has need for it and the proper background of experience to profit by it by Wilson (80).
13. The question of teaching number in the primary grades is not debatable if by this is meant the developing of number ideas and relationships through actual handling of materials, according to Buckingham (73) and Moore (79).

14. A study of actual number needs that developed in units of work in third and sixth grades is reported by Hanna (86). This method of attacking the problem should bring valuable results.
15. Brownell (70) recommends the "spreading" of instruction in arithmetic topics over a wider span of grades in keeping with child needs and abilities.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There is no lack of evidence to support the belief of many educators that instruction in reading should be delayed until the child's physiological, mental, emotional, and social maturity indicate that he is ready for that difficult task. Many questions, however, arise with respect to the administration of such a program. Some major problems which require additional study are suggested below:

1. There is need of a long term study of the effects of a delayed reading program. This should extend over several years and should compare the reading progress of children whose reading instruction began at the time of reading readiness with the progress of children taught reading in the first grade according to tradition. A detailed check not only of all factors relating to reading readiness, but of subsequent development of reading disabilities, use of reading as a leisure time pursuit, relation of delayed reading to achievement in other subjects involving reading ability would be of inestimable value.

2. If reading instruction is to be postponed for one year, two years, or even longer, teachers must be provided with many suggestions for activities to be carried on during the prereading years which will contribute directly to personality development and to reading readiness.

3. It is highly probable, if reading is to be taught later in a child's life than at present, that textbooks will require adaptation to pupil interest and reading ability. The present beginning readers may be too childish in concept, and books having subject matter interest may present vocabulary difficulties.

4. It is to be expected that reading readiness tests simple enough for administration by the classroom teacher will be developed. The improved readiness test will take account of all phases of reading readiness—physiological, mental, emotional, social—and will make possible a more accurate study of the individual child than the present tests afford.

5. Betts (4, 5, 6),<sup>1</sup> and others mention the advisability of using large printed material, in some cases of the "sight saving" type, for beginning instruction in reading. He recommends manuscript

<sup>1</sup> References in Part I of article.

writing in preference to script for all primary work. It is possible that materials in the future may be planned in accordance with these suggestions.

6. Parents of children now in school were taught to read in the first grade. Having had direct experience with no other type of program, they expect their children to be taught as they were taught. No program of delayed reading can be successful without the understanding and sympathy of the home. Studying problems of modern education with parents offers a wide field for investigation.

The following problems in arithmetic also require additional study and investigation:

1. An extended survey of the actual number needs of children, as suggested by Hanna (86) is needed before instruction can possibly be adapted to child needs and abilities.

2. More adequate studies of the relative difficulty of the many phases of arithmetic and the ability necessary for mastering each phase would provide scientific bases for reorganization of the arithmetic curriculum.

3. Any reorganized program in arithmetic should be subjected to an evaluation extending over a period of years to test its validity. Comparison of progress made by children under a reorganized curriculum should be made with that of children taught in the traditional way.

4. Teachers of primary children are in need of suggestions for developing the concepts of magnitude and quantity and relationship upon which formal instruction in arithmetic depends.

#### READING READINESS TESTS

BETTS, EMMETT ALBERT. *Betts Ready to Read Tests*. Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View Company.

*Description:* Tests chiefly of physiological aspects of reading readiness. Many are on stereoscopic slides to be used in a telebinocular. The test is individual and requires a trained examiner for administration.

HILDRETH, GERTRUDE H., and GRIFFITHS, NELLIE L. *Metropolitan Readiness Tests*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1933.

*Description:* Seven tests—similarities, copying, vocabulary, sentences, numbers, information, drawing a man. There is only one form. From ten to fifteen pupils may be tested at a time, by the classroom teacher. Working time is approximately seventy minutes, to be divided among four sittings. Predictive value of the test scores are given, with recommendations as to the proper instruction in first grade.

LEE, J. MURRAY, and CLARK, WILLIS W. *Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test*. Los Angeles: Southern California School Book Depository, 1931.

*Description:* Four tests, two tests of matching and two cross out tests. There is only one form. From ten to fifteen pupils may be tested at a time, by the classroom teacher.

Working time is eleven minutes.

Probable percentage of failures at each score level are given.

MONROE, MARION. *Reading Aptitude Tests*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1935.

*Description:* The test is divided into two parts, both contained in one booklet. The first part is a group test, the second is an individual test. The group test consists of (a) three visual tests (memory of orientation of forms, ocular-motor control and attention, and visual memory), (b) two motor tests (speed test and steadiness test), (c) two auditory tests (word-discrimination and sound-blending), and (d) one vocabulary test. Ten or twelve children may be handled simultaneously for this part of the test. The time required is 30 to 40 minutes.

The individual items must be given to each child alone and require 10 to 15 minutes. These tests are (a) a test of auditory memory, (b) two articulation tests (reproduction of words and phrases and speed of articulation), (c) two language tests (classification and sentence-length), (d) a motor test (writing the name), and (e) tests of handedness, eyedness, and footedness.

*Use of Results:* Results are expressed in percentile scores, and a profile of abilities is made for each child to show probable reading abilities and disabilities. Considerable material is given for the interpretation of results, with suggestions for overcoming various types of reading difficulty. The author recommends the use of an intelligence test in addition for more accurate prediction of reading success.

*Validity:* The reading aptitude tests were standardized from the records of 434 children from  $5\frac{1}{2}$  to  $8\frac{1}{2}$  years of age. Their predictive value was determined by correlating percentile scores on the reading aptitude tests given at the beginning of the year with scores on reading tests administered at the end of the year. A correlation coefficient of  $+ .75$  is reported between reading achievement and the composite score on the aptitude test.

STONE, CLARENCE R., and GROVER, CLIFFORD C. *Classification Test for Beginners in Reading*. St. Louis, Missouri: Webster Publishing Company, 1933.

*Description:* The test has two parts—matching of words and detecting similarities and differences in words. There is only one form. From ten to twelve pupils may be tested at a time, by the classroom teacher.

Working time is fourteen minutes.

Norms for interpretation of the test are given, together with recommendations as to the type of instruction adapted to the abilities of the children.

*Validity:* Correlations with reading tests and with primary intelligence tests were made, but are not reported in the test manual. The authors found the predictive value of the readiness test higher than that of the mental tests.

VAN WAGENEN, M. J. *Reading Readiness Scales*. Educational Test Bureau, Inc., 1932.

*Description:* Six tests—range of information, perception of relations, vocabulary (opposites), memory span for ideas, word discrimination, word learning. Forms A and B are given in the same booklet. This is an individual test. The working time is not indicated.

A profile chart indicates specific strengths and weaknesses. A corresponding 5-point scale ranging from *poor* to *superior* indicates reading prognosis.

*Validity:* A correlation of  $.80$  between the readiness test and a reading scale is reported.

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## THE EFFECT OF KINDERGARTEN SPEECH TRAINING ON PRIMARY GRADE PROGRESS AND ACHIEVEMENT OF CHILDREN WITH FOREIGN LANGUAGE HANDICAPS

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In September, 1929, a plan was developed in the kindergarten of the Grant School, San Jose, for giving special stress in language work to children with a foreign language handicap. This instructional program for developing the ability of these pupils to use the English language was carried on with successive groups over a period of four years, some children receiving one semester of speech training and others one year of speech training in the kindergarten. During the terms that these children were being promoted to the low first grade, other pupils were being enrolled in this grade who had not had the special training although they, too, had a foreign language handicap. This situation made possible the study of the relationship between length of special speech training in the kindergarten and success in the early grades of the elementary school.

### PROCEDURES FOLLOWED WITH EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

In planning a program of special help for the children in the kindergarten with a foreign language handicap, it was found best to place these children in an afternoon class devoted to work which was adapted to problems of this group. Suitable units of work were selected for this class on the dominant basis of their value in vocabulary building. The understanding and speaking of the English language was emphasized in all activities.

The attempt was made to present many words in as vivid a manner as possible, providing for the children pleasant associations with and clear impressions of the meaning of common words needed by them in overcoming their language handicaps. Toys, kindergarten supplies, foods, possessions of the children, pictures, and the actions of the children themselves were the chief materials of instruction used as the basis of the speech lessons. Repetitions of correct usage accompanied by keen interest in and understanding of the words and statements repeated were obtained through the use of games in which the above mentioned materials were used.

For example, an attractively decorated box with a cover was used for the first speech lessons. In this box were small kindergarten tools, toys, pictures, and other materials which would serve to clarify

the meaning of the work of each day. The children learned in the first lesson that the expression, "Please open the box," would cause the cover to be lifted. When a child could pronounce the words correctly, he had the privilege of going to the box and taking something from it. As he did so the name of the object taken was given by the teacher, repeated by the child holding the object and pronounced then by the group. After a short time, the children when taking an object from the box, were able to use understandingly a whole sentence such as, "I have a ball in my hand."

Many games grew out of the use of the box. Sometimes after naming an object a child was asked to place it "in the center of the rug," "beside a chair," "under a table," or "on the piano." After performing the act the child would come to the center of the group and say, "I put the ball in the center of the rug," "beside the chair," "under the table," and the like. After a number of objects had been placed about the room various children were selected to "find" the objects. Upon returning to the group a child would say, "I found the ball beside the chair," or "under a table," as the case might be.

At other times the children would return the objects to the box from descriptions of the objects. The child who was asked to find something with four wheels would bring a toy truck saying, "I found the truck," while the one who was asked for something with a handle might bring a toy hammer saying, "I found a hammer."

By varying the responses to be made and the contents of the box the interest was sustained in this type of activity. This box was found to lend itself to a variety of uses. It provided in a short period of time drill activities for a large number of children. These experiences were free from distraction because of the concentration which the class invariably gave.

The performance of a puppet was a utilized source of providing growth in oral expression. A toy monkey that would fit over the hand of the teacher and execute various acts upon the request of members of the class was found to arouse a keen interest in the learning of many English words. The numerous requests involved selection in the use of appropriate words and phrases.

Counting-out games in which the terms "out goes she," "out goes he," "I see him," and "I see her" were used, helped in the learning of pronouns which provided an especial stumbling block.

The correct word or statement to be used was always carefully and clearly illustrated for the children before they were asked to use it, so as to avoid embarrassment and enable them to form associations of pleasure and satisfaction with the right use of the words newly acquired. Correct pronunciation and audible responses were also stressed as the children gained familiarity with the English words.

At the beginning of the term the lessons lasted for ten minutes each day and after the first two months were increased to twenty minutes.

Considerable use was made of stories, carefully selected and frequently reworded or entirely rewritten, so that the children could understand them. Good illustrations which could be shown as the story progressed were found to be invaluable as an aid to understanding. Objects and actions were also used to help develop a clear conception of the meaning.

Many times the group would join in the telling of a well known story and in this way the ears and tongues of the children would become familiar with many English words.

A favorite story was "Little Black Sambo" simplified to include a relatively small number of repeated words. Excerpts from the simplified version are as follows:

Once upon a time there was a little black boy. His name was Little Black Sambo. His mother's name was Black Mumbo. His father's name was Black Jumbo.

Black Mumbo made Little Black Sambo a red coat and a pair of blue trousers. Black Jumbo went to the store and bought a green umbrella and a pair of shoes for Little Black Sambo.

Little Black Sambo put on his red coat, his blue trousers and his new shoes. He took his umbrella in his hand and went for a walk.

He met a tiger. The tiger growled at him and said, "Little Black Sambo, I'm going to eat you!"

"Oh, please, Mr. Tiger, don't eat me and I'll give you my red coat," said Little Black Sambo.

"Very well," said the tiger, "I won't eat you this time, but you must give me your red coat."

So poor Little Black Sambo took off his coat and gave it to the tiger. The tiger put on the coat and went for a walk.

Little Black Sambo walked a little farther. He met another tiger. The tiger growled at him and said, "Little Black Sambo, I'm going to eat you!"

Poor Little Black Sambo began to cry. Soon he heard a loud noise. He hid behind a tree. The noise came closer and closer. Black Sambo looked out from behind the tree. He saw the tigers fighting. They took off the clothes and threw them onto the ground. Little Black Sambo crept out from behind the tree. He took his clothes and ran away to a safe place. Then he put on his clothes and went home, leaving the tigers still growling and fighting.

Other stories which, with slight changes in further limiting the vocabulary included, were found to be well adapted to the needs of a foreign speaking group, are as follows: "The Little Tin Train"; "Cotton Tail"; "Spry Mouse"; "Biting Marion"; "The Three Autos"; "The Red Gasoline Pump"; "The Police Cop Man."

Books in which similar changes were made were also found usable. Included in the list were:

BARRUCH, DOROTHY. *I Like Automobiles*. New York: The John Day Company, 1931.



- BESKOV, ELSA. *The Tale of the Wee Little Old Woman*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931.
- FLACK, MARJORIE. *Angus and the Ducks*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1930.  
*Angus and the Cat*, 1933; *Angus Lost*, 1932; *Wag Tail Bess*, 1934; *Tim Tadpole and the Great Bullfrog*, 1934; *Topsy*, 1935.
- HADER, BERTA, and HADER, ELMER. *Whiffey McCann*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1933.
- Happy Hour Series. *The Three Billy Goats Gruff*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927.  
*The Three Bears*, 1928; *Chicken Little*, 1927; *The Little Red Hen*, 1928.
- TOWSLEY, LENA. *Sally and Her Friends*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart Company, 1932.
- WILLIAMSON, HAMILTON. *The Little Elephant*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1930.  
*A Monkey Tale*, 1929; *Baby Bear*, 1930.

### EFFECTIVENESS OF SPECIAL LANGUAGE TRAINING

The effectiveness of special language training given to pupils in the kindergarten was measured in terms of amount of failure and reading ability during the early elementary school years. Three groups of pupils were compared: (I) 29 pupils with no speech training; (II) 13 pupils with one semester of speech training in the kindergarten; and (III) 30 pupils with two semesters of speech training in the kindergarten.

Table I presents a comparison of these three groups on the basis of age of entrance to the low first grade and IQ.

The data of Table I indicate that groups I and II were of approximately the same age, while group III was slightly older than either of the two other groups. Furthermore, the group with one semester of speech training in the kindergarten possessed higher IQ's than the group with no speech training, and the group with two semesters of speech training possessed higher IQ's than the group with one semester of speech training. This difference in IQ might be accounted for to some extent by the fact that the children with more training in the English language were able to perform better on the intelligence test items which demanded some knowledge of English. The findings of a study by Fickinger<sup>1</sup> indicated that lack of familiarity with the language in which an intelligence test is given affects materially the score made on a test.

In Table II the three groups are compared on the basis of the percentage of pupils in each group who failed of promotion in the low first grade, the number of semesters required to complete the first grade, and the total number of half-year failures during the first two years in the elementary school.

<sup>1</sup> Paul Lawrence Fickinger. *A Study of Certain Phases of the Language Problems of Spanish American Children*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of New Mexico, 1930.

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF THREE GROUPS OF PUPILS ON BASIS OF AMOUNT OF SPEECH TRAINING IN KINDERGARTEN, AGE OF ENTRANCE TO LOW FIRST GRADE, AND IQ

	I No speech training	II One semes- ter of speech training	III Two semes- ters of speech training
Age of entrance to low first grade in years and months			
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	6- 2	6- 2	6- 4
Median-----	6- 1	6- 1	6- 2
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	5-10	6- 0	5-11
Mean-----	6- 0	6- 0	6- 1
IQ			
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	109	114	121
Median-----	91	98	105
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	85	83	96
Mean-----	95	97	105

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF THREE GROUPS OF PUPILS ON BASIS OF AMOUNT OF SPEECH TRAINING IN KINDERGARTEN AND PROGRESS IN PRIMARY GRADES

	I No speech training	II One semes- ter of speech training	III Two semes- ters of speech training
Percentage of pupils failing of promotion in low first grade-----	58.0	54.0	37.0
Number of semesters in first grade			
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.7	4.2	3.4
Median-----	3.4	2.9	2.8
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	2.6	2.5	2.4
Mean-----	2.9	2.8	2.4
Number of half-year fail- ures in two years			
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.1	2.6	1.7
Median-----	2.2	1.6	.94
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	.75	.81	.42
Mean-----	2.9	1.4	.63

Table II shows that the percentage of pupils failing of promotion in the low first grade diminished as the period of speech training in kindergarten was increased. The group with no previous speech training required more time to complete the first grade than did either of the groups with speech training in kindergarten. The group with two semesters of speech training in kindergarten completed the first

grade in less time than did the group with but one semester of speech training. During the first two years in the primary grades the number of failures varied inversely with the period of speech training in the kindergarten.

Table III presents a comparison of the three groups on the basis of reading test scores. The Clark-Ingraham Reading Test, Part One, was administered in October, 1933, after the pupils had attended school in the primary grades for three years; the Clark-Ingraham Reading Test, Part Two, was administered in January, 1934, following three and one-half years of attendance; and the New Stanford Reading Test was administered in September, 1934, after four years of school attendance.

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF THREE GROUPS OF PUPILS ON BASIS OF AMOUNT OF SPEECH TRAINING IN KINDERGARTEN AND READING ACHIEVEMENT IN PRIMARY GRADES

Test	READING GRADE SCORES		
	I No speech training	II One semes- ter of speech training	III Two semes- ters of speech training
Clark-Ingraham, Part I, after three years of schooling			
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	---	---	---
Median-----	3.7	4.8	3.9
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	3.2	3.4	3.7
Mean-----	3.4	3.7	3.5
Clark-Ingraham, Part II, after three and one-half years of schooling			
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.5	4.4	4.8
Median-----	4.1	4.0	4.2
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	3.3	3.4	4.0
Mean-----	3.7	4.0	4.1
New Stanford Reading Test, after four years of school- ing			
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.2	5.1	4.5
Median-----	3.9	4.4	4.0
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	3.1	3.1	3.9
Mean-----	3.8	4.4	3.8

Although the differences in reading ability of the three groups was small, and the groups contained few pupils, the data of Table III would indicate that pupils with previous speech training in the kindergarten made better scores on reading tests in the primary grades.

A further measure of the effectiveness of kindergarten speech training for children with foreign language handicaps was obtained

through a comparison of pupils. Pupils with no speech training and pupils with either one or two semesters of speech training were paired on the basis of approximately equal IQ's and the same age of entrance to the low first grade.

Table IV presents a comparison of the two groups thus paired on the basis of age of entrance in low first grade and IQ.

TABLE IV  
COMPARISON OF TWO PAIRED GROUPS OF PUPILS, WITH  
AND WITHOUT SPEECH TRAINING IN KINDERGARTEN  
ON BASIS OF AGE OF ENTRANCE TO LOW FIRST GRADE  
AND IQ

	No speech training	One year of speech training
Age of entrance to low first grade in years and months		
Q <sub>3</sub> .....	6- 2	6- 3
Median.....	5-11	6- 1
Q <sub>1</sub> .....	5- 6	5-10
Mean.....	6- 0	6- 2
IQ		
Q <sub>3</sub> .....	106	107
Median.....	96	101
Q <sub>1</sub> .....	88	90
Mean.....	93	99

It will be seen from Table IV that the group with one year of speech training in the kindergarten is somewhat superior to the group with no speech training and that the age of entrance to the low first grade was also somewhat higher in this group. While the groups are not strictly comparable with respect to these two measures, they were as nearly equal as was possible by pairing with the cases available.

Table V presents a comparison of the two paired groups on the basis of the percentage of pupils in each group who failed of promotion in the low first grade, the number of semesters required to complete the first grade, and the total number of half-year failures during the first two years in the elementary school.

It will be seen from Table V that there were far more failures in the low first grade in the group of pupils with no speech training in the kindergarten. Furthermore, the group with no speech training in the kindergarten required more time to complete the first grade and had more failures during the first two years of school.

Table VI presents a comparison of the reading ability of the pupils of the two groups, and the data of Table VI were derived from the same test scores as the data of Table III.

TABLE V  
COMPARISON OF TWO PAIRED GROUPS OF PUPILS WITH  
AND WITHOUT SPEECH TRAINING IN KINDERGARTEN  
ON BASIS OF PROGRESS IN PRIMARY GRADES

	With no speech training	With one year of speech training
Failures in low first grade...	12	8
Number of semesters in first grade		
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.1	3.6
Median-----	3.3	3.1
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	2.1	2.1
Mean-----	3.2	2.6
Number of half-year failures in two years		
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	2.8	2.2
Median-----	1.7	1.5
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	.95	.79
Mean-----	2.8	2.2

TABLE VI  
COMPARISON OF TWO PAIRED GROUPS OF PUPILS WITH  
AND WITHOUT SPEECH TRAINING IN KINDERGARTEN  
ON BASIS OF READING ACHIEVEMENT

Test	Reading grade scores	
	Pupils without language training	Pupils with language training
Clark-Ingraham, Part I, after three years of schooling		
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.1	4.1
Median-----	3.8	3.8
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	3.5	3.6
Mean-----	3.8	3.8
Clark-Ingraham, Part II, after three and one-half years of schooling		
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.5	4.4
Median-----	4.2	4.2
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	3.9	4.0
Mean-----	4.0	3.9
New Stanford Reading Test, after four years of school- ing		
Q <sub>3</sub> -----	4.1	5.0
Median-----	4.0	4.2
Q <sub>1</sub> -----	3.8	3.7
Mean-----	3.7	4.3



From Table VI it will be seen that the difference in reading scores between the two groups is negligible except in the case of the scores made on the Stanford Reading Test after four years of elementary schooling. On this test the group with one year of speech training in the kindergarten is shown to be quite superior to the group with no speech training.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The data presented in this study warrant the following conclusions with reference to the effectiveness of special language training given in the kindergarten to pupils with language handicaps:

1. Pupils with special language training in a kindergarten, made fewer failures in the low first grade than pupils without special training. Pupils with two semesters of special training made fewer failures than those with but one semester of training.

2. Pupils with language training in a kindergarten required a shorter period of time to complete the first grade than pupils without such training; those pupils with two semesters of special training completed the first grade in a shorter period of time than those with but one semester of such training.

3. There is an inverse relationship between the amount of special training given in a kindergarten and the number of semesters required to complete the first two grades.

4. Pupils with special language training from the kindergarten, achieved greater success in reading in the primary grades than those pupils without such training.

Although the data from reading tests presented in this study are insufficient to warrant strong conclusions, the judgments of primary grade teachers who received pupils with foreign language handicaps, were quite positive to the effect that language training in the kindergarten was highly effective in preparing pupils with language handicaps for the regular work of the primary grades. This was especially noticeable in connection with reading. Although the majority of children entered the first grade with the strong desire to learn to read, those who had received no previous help with their speech handicaps often became discouraged because of their lack of success as compared with those children with special speech training in kindergarten.

The problem of providing adequate educational opportunities for those children who are handicapped in language by reason of foreign parentage is of such importance as to warrant further intensive study and experimentation under conditions where more factors can be controlled with larger groups of pupils than was possible in the present study. Such research should yield rich returns in the solution of the problem of providing those school experiences which are necessary to meet the need of pupils with language handicaps.

## RADIO IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

I. KEITH TYLER, *Ohio State University*

There is still a singular lack of concern with radio among progressive elementary schools. While the principle that education is concerned with the whole of child life, within and without the school, is generally accepted, yet radio broadcasting is relatively so new that educational practice has not yet absorbed this important instrument of communication into the school. Consider, however, the significance of radio today.

### WIDESPREAD INFLUENCE OF THE RADIO

In the first place it is widespread in its influence. Though the first broadcasting station went on the air as late as November of 1920, by the time of the federal census of 1930, just ten years later, there were 12,048,762 families with receiving sets among the 29,904,663 families in the United States. There were then 40.3 per cent of American homes that were receiving broadcast programs. This amazing development continued unabated during the next five years. The estimate for January 1, 1935, was 21,455,799 homes equipped with radios out of a total of 30,919,300 families, or 69.4 per cent.

In California the influence of radio is even more widespread. The same careful estimate for this state was 77.8 per cent in 1935, and in urban areas it is even higher. A study in Oakland,<sup>1</sup> for example, showed that in 1934 a sampling of seventh grade pupils reported radios in over 97 per cent of their homes. In Brooklyn, New York, a similar study conducted among sixth grade pupils showed 92 per cent of the homes equipped with radios.<sup>2</sup> Certain it is that a large and significant proportion of the homes from which California elementary school children come are radio equipped.

### CHILDREN LISTEN TO A VARIETY OF PROGRAMS

We know, in the second place, that elementary school children listen to the radio. While no data are available as to the average amount of time which such children spend before the radio, yet it must be relatively large. Seventh grade children in Oakland spent an average of two hours and fourteen minutes in listening each school day, according to a study made in 1934. It is fair to assume that they

<sup>1</sup> I. Keith Tyler. "Radio Studies in the Oakland Schools," *Education on the Air*, Fifth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1934, pp. 297-312.

<sup>2</sup> I. L. Eisenberg. "Children's Interest in and Reactions to Radio Programs," *Education on the Air*, Fifth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1934, pp. 318-322.

did not begin listening upon entrance to junior high school; they must have been radio listeners before that time. From studies of elementary school children's program preferences, we know that they listen to many programs, both those specially prepared for boys and girls, and those which are more general in nature. The criticism which parents have leveled at some of the more exciting of the juvenile programs would indicate that in their judgment, at least, boys and girls were being affected by the programs to which they listen and that this effect was sometimes harmful. What children are gaining in the way of ideas, attitudes, and patterns of conduct from the radio is still largely a matter of conjecture. But it is certainly true that radio looms large in the lives of boys and girls of elementary school age.

### THE RADIO IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

There are at least three ways in which the radio can be dealt with in the elementary school. All of these are practices actually to be found in schools here and there which are attempting to meet the situation. The field is so new that it is not possible to point to the perfect solution to the radio problem. Rather must this plan and that be tried until with the improvement of practice and the refinement of evaluation it is possible to determine the best arrangement for an individual school.

The first way is to bring the radio into the classroom as a teaching tool. Just as elementary teachers have seized upon a great variety of visual aids from motion pictures to charts, so can the radio be used as a sensory aid which involves hearing rather than sight. The radio, like the motion picture, makes it possible to expose the children to a great variety of experiences.

### CENTRAL CONTROL SYSTEM

There are several arrangements being used for providing the radio in the classroom. There is, for example, the central control system with wired receivers in each classroom, making possible not only the reception of broadcasts, but the playing of phonograph discs, the making of announcements and even the presentation of special programs. Though this additional equipment adds to the cost its values are many. The music teacher can prepare music appreciation programs using phonograph records specially selected for the listening group. The entire school can listen at one time to broadcast programs without needing to be crowded into an auditorium. Of even more educative value is the possibility of preparing and presenting programs by the children themselves; a stimulating activity which may be richly

creative and develop a variety of worth while skills. Civic enterprises within the school can be aided when committees of boys and girls give their reports and discussions over the system to all the classrooms involved.

The disadvantage of the central control system is its unwieldiness; the selection of programs takes place in the office rather than in the classroom. Most of such systems have a single channel so that only one program can be received at a time. This precludes the receiving of different programs by different rooms. It necessarily makes for a more formalized type of listening. While a program can be sent to one room or to many, yet not more than one program at a time can be heard simultaneously even when such an arrangement might permit more frequent use of the radio by classes engaged in widely different activity. When there is more than one channel there may, of course, be more than one program on the system thus permitting greater choice on the part of the teachers. The fact, however, that a teacher must make arrangements with the office to insure hearing some special program tends to reduce its use.

#### CLASSROOM RADIO UNITS

A number of schools have a central radio with wired receivers in various classrooms, but without provision for phonograph or microphone pickups. This equipment is greatly limited in its potentialities and its chief merit is that it is somewhat cheaper. Few indeed are the radio programs which appeal to groups of children of widely different ages. Even where there are several groups of similar age it is not usual for them to be engaged in the same type of learning activities. A single radio program would seldom fit naturally into the classroom situations in all the rooms.

Where the radio is to be used informally, many teachers are finding the small classroom radio receiver the most successful. While it does not permit simultaneous reception nor school prepared programs (except those actually put on the air by local broadcasting stations) it does make the radio a part of the teaching equipment to be used as any other device when it can make a real contribution to the teaching process. Thus the International News Broadcasts in the Bay Area are received in many classrooms as a part of the social studies program in the fifth and sixth grades. The class hears the broadcast in the classroom and follows it with discussion in which the current news is interpreted and fitted into the larger program of social studies. In the upper grades, too, it is possible to tune in on significant special events which are being broadcast, a talk by a member of the President's cabinet, a description of a colorful meeting, the

opening of a new bridge. Outstanding musical programs can sometimes contribute to the music period and the daytime hours often contain talks by leaders in the arts or the sciences which have value, even where the subject matter is not wholly understandable to the children, in giving a conception of the personalities of such individuals.

#### SINGLE RADIO IN AUDITORIUM

Some schools are limited to a single radio in the auditorium. This is used with some success in a program like the Standard School Broadcasts where the appeal is to a range of grades and where the children benefit from the music even though some of the words of the speaker are not distinctly understood. This arrangement is seldom satisfactory for programs involving much speech because the acoustics are often very bad. In addition, talking programs usually have a narrower range of interest and cater to a more select audience such as is represented by a single class in its own classroom.

#### THE RADIO AS A TEACHING TOOL

But the radio as a teaching tool is constantly growing in usefulness and in influence both in this country and abroad. Broadcasts direct to schools, as the American School of the Air, the Ohio School of the Air, the Standard School Broadcast, the school broadcasts of the Cleveland Board of Education, and the British Broadcasting Corporation, and others, are constantly improving as the broadcasters learn both the limitations of the medium and the most effective techniques for its use. While the radio will never supplant the teacher, yet it will give her a greater usefulness by placing at her disposal another effective teaching tool which transcends the limitations of the classroom.

#### RADIO APPRECIATION

The second way in which the elementary school may adapt itself to the new place of radio is in developing the beginnings of radio program appreciation on the part of the school children with whom it deals. Small children are not too young to be taught the beginnings of an appreciation for good literature; similarly they are not too young to begin to develop standards of good taste in radio programs. Whether we like it or not, the boys and girls are listening to programs in the home; the school's place is to help these children become more discriminating in their listening.

Children's programs can be discussed. They can be compared in story and presentation with good children's literature. The boys and girls can themselves try adapting story favorites to radio



form. They can go behind the curtain and learn something about how radio programs are produced. In short, by engaging in a variety of activities in relation to their radio listening they can build up a set of child standards which they can apply to their favorite programs. The results will be the beginnings of discrimination upon which real appreciation is built.

#### WORKING WITH PARENTS

The third way in which the elementary school may concern itself with the radio is in its work with parents. Through the Parent-Teacher Association, the Dad's Club, and the numerous informal contacts which teachers and principal have with the homes, guidance in dealing with the radio situation can be given. Intelligent mothers and fathers are confused and oftentimes disturbed by the many problems to which the radio has given rise. They recognize the worth of many of the programs; the easy accessibility of good music, the contact with events far and wide, the range of information which is brought into the home, the inspiration of good drama, and the opportunity for relaxation through good entertainment. But they also see effects which are not so desirable; the usurping of the child's time which might better be spent in the open air, the overstimulation from exciting children's thrillers and the distorted scale of values which is implied in some of the programs. They feel the need for help in the solution of these problems.

Aid can be given them through meetings devoted to the discussion of the radio situation and through the frequent conferences which are held with individual parents. Some of the national organizations are beginning the development of programs in this field. The Parent-Teacher Association has a national committee on radio. Local groups can secure helps for conducting special meetings from the national organization.

The problem itself is not greatly different from that which exists in regard to motion pictures. With children of elementary school age there is possible a large measure of control. Parents can choose worthwhile programs for their children, and censor the ones which they feel to be harmful. This implies that the parents will need to be familiar with the nature of the various offerings and have some sort of standards by which they may be evaluated. Such a set of standards might well be developed by one of the groups in its study of the problem. Some groups are reviewing programs, recommending certain offerings for various ages of children and black-listing others. It is doubtful if this procedure is wholly satisfactory. Individual children differ in their make-up and programs harmful to one child might not be to another. Likewise, parents may have different

standards. The best plan seems to be to work out a set of standards to be used by the parents themselves. The more alert parents will adapt these criteria to their own needs and individual scale of values; other parents will accept them as they are.

#### RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL

While this control of radio listening works very well with young children, it becomes less effective as they grow older. Then they are being exposed to programs in other homes, in public places, and in various institutions. Here the home must join hands with the school in developing discrimination in the boys and girls themselves. The parent's part in this is to discuss programs with his children. This does not mean a parental lecture but rather drawing out from the child his reactions and by suggestion and comparison developing in him a critical attitude toward what he hears. The parent can become enthusiastic over a drama well presented; his enthusiasm will be caught by the youngster. He can compare the ethics implicit in one program with those expressed in another. In short he can *guide* the child's growth in appreciation though he cannot *force* it.

Because of the importance of the radio in modern life, the elementary school has a great responsibility. The radio is here to stay and its influence is growing. The school can meet the situation by incorporating this new instrument of communication into the learning situation, using it as a tool of instruction. Likewise, radio program discrimination can have its beginnings in the elementary school, probably through the English program. And lastly, the school, in its contact with parents, can give them aid in dealing with radio problems in the home. Here, then, is a rounded program which elementary school principals and teachers cannot afford to neglect.

## THESE "VEGETATIVE" INDIVIDUALS

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Riverside Public Schools*

Three incidents of a similar nature have occurred in educational conferences during the past two years which have set up a continuous series of mental reactions called *pondering*. Hence this article.

### DOCTRINE OF INTEREST ASSAILED

Two years ago in a meeting of secondary social studies teachers a speaker ventured an opinion that unless history could be so studied that it would develop an interest on the part of the student, he doubted if it should be required. He expressed the belief that there was little value to the student in being forced to study a subject unless his interest could be aroused in that study, and he could be made to see the value of it. He suggested that often undesirable attitudes were cultivated which did more harm than the history did good. In other words the student had learned to dislike history.

The writer believes this is a sane and defensible point of view. It was supported by a small number of those present, and opposed by several. Then a teacher rose from the audience and in an eloquent manner denounced the doctrine of interest, said that he, for one, was not going to allow the unstable and transitory interests of high school students to dictate his teaching; that furthermore, there were always a large number of students who had no interest in academic studies as such, and that it was the duty of teachers to see that children studied the things that adults knew were good for them, even though old time methods were required to get results.

It was not the fact that many teachers refuse to accept the doctrine of interest, or that many have the misconception that it is synonymous with sugar coating, that was disconcerting but that the speaker was loudly applauded for expressing a sentiment that seemed quite popular.

Since then the author has twice heard speakers applauded for voicing similar thoughts. On the last occasion a panel speaker referred to "these vegetative individuals" who are found in large numbers in every high school and who must be assigned definite work to do and then be made to do it. He was interrupted by applause at this point, and was much gratified at having expressed a popular opinion.

The word *vegetative* as used in this sense was new, so the writer looked it up. The dictionary indicated, among other things, that it meant "leading a passive existence; inert."

The junior and senior high schools may have a large number of pupils who are, to all intents and purposes, vegetative so far as academic achievements are concerned. Furthermore, many of them are over-age, discouraged with school, and often rebellious. As one teacher put it, "They dare you to teach them anything they don't want to learn." Recently a teacher was asked if students were segregated into ability groups in their new fused social studies-English core. She said they were at first, but that the low ability groups proved to be such serious disciplinary problems it was found necessary to change to unselected groups in order to control them.

#### RESPONSIBILITY OF SCHOOL TO LOW ABILITY PUPILS

A pertinent question needs to be raised at this point and a thesis proposed and defended. The question is this. Why do so many of our low ability students become problem cases, either from the point of discipline, willingness to study, or both? The thesis to be defended is this. First, educators are chiefly responsible for the generally unfavorable attitude and conduct of our low ability students; and second, educators are professionally obligated to make the revisions in curricula and teaching procedures which are essential to the developing of more wholesome attitudes and conduct. One has only to visit some of our better kindergartens and primary rooms to realize the truth that these children do not enter school in the same mental condition in which so many of them are found by the time they have reached the high school. The public schools must accept the responsibility, at all levels of the system, not only for the conditions which have resulted in the so-called vegetative pupil, but also for failure to effect a cure. Too frequently educators have accepted it as a natural condition, and have, except in a number of our more progressive systems, done little of a preventive nature in the majority of the schools of the nation.

True, courses in the vocational arts have been developed for these students, and, in many cases, have so crowded the shops, homemaking departments, and commercial departments with the low ability student that these courses are becoming known as "dumb-bell" courses to be avoided by the bright student with an academic mind, much to the dismay of the instructors of these departments who rightfully believe that experience in the industrial arts is as essential to a good general education as is a course in science or history. However, while considerable progress has been made in caring for the low ability student through non-academic courses, little of a preventive nature has been done nor has much progress been made in developing an educational procedure which will result in the establishment of a wholesome mental attitude toward the school in general.

Educators have been charged with being largely responsible for the vegetative individual. This point of view should be defended by drawing a picture of the school life of the student who comes equipped with an academic ability below that of the majority of pupils, and who is not lucky enough to draw, as his lot, one of our more progressive schools. If he begins school by way of the kindergarten, and if this kindergarten is in charge of one of our many well trained kindergarten teachers, he will undoubtedly spend a happy and profitable year, and enter the first grade much the better for his experiences. But here, in the majority of cases, conditions change. In spite of the fact that it is established that a large number of children are not yet capable of learning to read readily, teachers proceed to teach or attempt to teach reading to the whole class. At the end of the year a considerable number of the low ability students are failed, and the first step is taken in making them socially unadjusted. If these children are passed, they encounter arithmetic which they are unable to grasp, plus more reading in books far too difficult. Many of them are only now ready to attempt beginning reading, so that they are almost certain to be required to repeat this grade. Many children repeat both the first and second grades. The process continues. Rigid grade standards have been established which the child must meet. He should not go on into the next grade until he is capable of carrying the work of that grade. Let us picture this same pupil as he reaches the junior high school. In general, he is from one to three years over age for his grade. He has been continually struggling with assignments beyond his capabilities until he has given up in discouragement, and has learned to make the situation less intolerable by day dreaming or by causing the teacher as much misery as possible. And why not? Certainly the school has not been too much concerned with his happiness. It has been chiefly interested in trying to drive him into doing things that were, by the very nature of things, impossible for him to do.

To be one or two years older than the majority of the pupils does not especially bother the primary child, but a junior high school pupil is very much concerned and rebels at the thought of continuing school in the same class with "babies." The adolescent boy or girl is very sensitive to social maladjustment. This is a much more serious condition than academic maladjustment and much less easily remedied. Under these conditions it is little wonder that so many pupils of low academic ability come to the senior high school in a discouraged, and often rebellious, frame of mind.

One who gives adverse criticism should be able to suggest a remedy. Nothing will be recommended here that has not been advocated for a number of years by our leading thinkers in the field of education.



## TWO IRRECONCILABLE THEORIES

In general, there are two fields of thought in relation to the curricula. The old, to which schools still largely adhere, is that there are certain standards in terms of subject-matter achievement which must be attained in each of the different grades. The pupil must learn to read in the primary grades. He should be able to solve problems of percentage before he leaves a certain grade. He should not be sent to the high school until he has demonstrated certain ability in mathematics or grammar. He should not pass to the grade above until he has shown himself able to do the work of his present grade. True this philosophy has not been adhered to absolutely. If it had been so, a goodly number of students would never be promoted from the elementary school. After two or three failures the case is given up as hopeless and the child is allowed to pass along and absorb what he can on the way. Often this is done, however, only after the child has become a rather serious disciplinary case.

The other point of view is expressed by the phrase "adjusting the school to the child." We have made much progress towards this ideal in recent years but, in general, still have a long hard road to travel. Here are a few of the implications if the philosophy of this school of thought is accepted:

1. *Basis for Promotion.* Promotion would be largely on the basis of chronological, social, and physiological age, so far as this can be determined. It is essential to keep the child socially and physiologically adjusted. The public schools can and must adjust the curriculum to him.

2. *Recognition of Readiness for Learning.* The various skills and abilities will be taught when the child is able and ready to learn them, and not before. This means that many children will begin their reading months, and even years, before others. The same is true of the different processes in arithmetic. After all, progress in the so-called fundamentals is largely an individual matter and should be so recognized. Ideally, a fourth grade would have a number of pupils doing what is now known as fifth and sixth grade arithmetic, reading, English, or social studies, while others would be working at what is now a second or third grade level. This necessitates drastic changes in our present group methods, but a number of progressive schools are leading the way. Educators should not be satisfied until every child is working at or near his level of ability, and making continuous progress, no matter how fast or slow. There is no legitimate excuse for continually forcing a child to attempt tasks beyond his level of understanding while other youngsters obtain praise and high grades for doing similar tasks which are easy for them.

In the larger junior and senior high schools differentiated curricula will be provided so that a student can select, under guidance, courses which will provide experiences at his level of ability, with goals which he can see and accept. After all, while it is probably true that it takes a pupil of superior intelligence to pass in physics as now taught, it is equally true that there is in the whole field of science a wealth of materials which will provide activities of great interest and value to even the lower ability students. The same is true of the social studies, English, and other academic fields. Under teachers believing in this philosophy, and using an activity approach, low ability classes will have a happy and vital school experience. Even at the junior and senior high school level it is not too late to undo much of the damage if the techniques used by superior elementary teachers are recognized and the emphasis in all schools placed upon pupil development rather than upon subject-matter mastery. After all, the activity approach, interpreting activity to mean any learning experience, is the psychological approach. Those things which the low ability student is capable of understanding, and in which he can and will develop an interest must be found. Both are greatly dependent upon the learning activities employed. If a high school pupil is not capable of reading materials or understanding problems beyond that of an average fourth grade child he should be working at this level, even though classed as a junior or senior, and his standing on the football team or in other activities should not be questioned because of this.

In many secondary schools pupils have been grouped according to ability, but in few cases a curriculum of activities has been developed to fit the needs of the low ability pupil. He still is taught the same things in about the same manner that are taught others in the same subject. This is evidence of ability grouping, but not differentiated curricula with different objectives and procedures. In general, low ability classes merely go more slowly, and skip the harder parts.

3. *Pupils' Marks.* Subject-matter marks should be eliminated. Continually to get low and failing marks for doing one's best; to see, at the same time, playmates more favorably endowed receiving, with no greater effort, high marks with the accompanying praise from parent and teacher is not conducive to the most healthful mental attitudes. It is no wonder that our low ability students become calloused and adopt the "don't care" attitude as a defensive reaction. There is little else to do in a hopeless situation.

4. *Meaningful Goals.* Teachers must become more concerned about pupil-goals in education. It is undoubtedly true, as many psychologists point out, that there can be efficient learning only when

the learner is progressing toward a direct goal which he sees as being worth the effort. To attempt to teach materials or engage in activities which are largely meaningless to the pupil, or in which his chief interest is in getting a grade or credit is, at the best, exceedingly wasteful of time and energy, and results in little permanent learning of those things which schools have tried to teach. In many cases the school has not only failed to attain the desired results, but, as has been pointed out before, cultivated undesirable reactions on the part of the pupil. Pupils do not naturally dislike this or that subject. They have learned it somewhere in their educational experience. Low ability children do not dislike school until they have found it distasteful.

Too often the grade or credit becomes the goal rather than the gaining of certain understandings, skills, appreciations, and attitudes. Their elimination will help in centering interest on the true goals of education.

When the curriculum has finally been adjusted to the child; when actually, as well as theoretically, educators have become at least as much concerned with the development of wholesome attitudes and habits as they are with subject matter mastery; then, and not until then, will the public schools solve the problem of the vegetative individual.

#### NEED OF SUCCESSFUL ACHIEVEMENT FOR ALL PUPILS

Possibly the writer has been too severe in the criticism of educational practices. Certainly the harm that has been done the low ability student has not been wilful, but rather has been a natural outcome of the traditional philosophy of education. In many cases the high school is, to all practical purposes, still a weeding out place for the selection of students with the ability to go on. The school system has been and still is largely a competitive institution, holding to certain academic standards as a basis for advancement and commendation. Age old practices and theories do not change over night. A large number of school systems have recognized the problem, and have gone a long way toward its solution. They have pointed the way. The schools are not to be too severely censured for what has happened in the past, but there is no longer a legitimate excuse for developing, in the future, a vast number of vegetative individuals.

There may be a tendency to be too optimistic over the chances of developing more wholesome mental attitudes and work habits on the part of the low ability student. Certainly, border line cases and mental defectives belong to special institutions developed for their care. However, observation of the activities of the lower fourth of the children in kindergartens and in a few junior high school classes convinces the writer that if teachers and administrators will continue

to provide interesting and worth while experiences at the pupil's level of ability; take away the stigma of slow accomplishment; make school a series of successful achievements rather than failures; and keep these children in their own social groups the public schools will no longer be producing a large number of pupils who, at the junior and senior high school level, become known as vegetative. This is one of the real challenges to teachers, administrators, and curricula workers in public school service today.

## THE PLACE OF INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION IN THE INTEGRATED PROGRAM

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It is doubtful whether anyone can adequately define progressive education to the complete satisfaction of everyone else. Because of this lack of specific agreement, different educators are apt to be talking about different things when they speak of progressive education. One cause of this situation is probably the fact that the progressive education movement seems to shift its base so that policies and theories which were generally accepted by most progressives a short time ago are now not only ignored but even condemned by some of them.

### IS INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION INCOMPATIBLE WITH PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION?

Such seems to be the fate of the Individual Instruction Movement. In 1924 this movement was in high favor among the progressives,<sup>1</sup> but during the past few years it has gradually fallen into disrepute with some of those who constitute what might be termed the *ultra-progressive* group in the progressive movement. Their chief criticism of individual instruction methods as developed by Frederick Burk, Carleton Washburne, Willard Beatty, Helen Parkhurst, and others, is that such methods are simply better and more efficient ways of doing things that should not be done at all, namely, the formal instruction of pupils in the traditional isolated subjects. These progressives, whose chief interest is to promote the integrated activity program to the point where separate subjects are extinct, feel that such individual instruction methods are to be condemned as severely as the traditional separate subjects themselves, since individual instruction tends to cover up some of the defects of separate subject teaching and so prolong its life. Most of those who have developed individual materials are the first, however, to deplore the misuse of such materials for solidifying the old routine type of separate subject teaching with little or no reference to or connection with children's activities.

Kilpatrick was one of the first to point out the apparent incompatibility between individual instruction and a completely integrated program.<sup>2</sup> Many educational leaders who are now riding the wave of

<sup>1</sup> The *Progressive Education* magazine of April, 1924, was entirely devoted to the subject of individual instruction. Frederick Burk, Carleton Washburne, Helen Parkhurst, and others contributed articles on the subject.

<sup>2</sup> W. H. Kilpatrick. *An Effort at Appraisal*. Part II; Twenty-fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Section VI, 1925, 273-286.



Gestalt psychology and organismic biology accept Kilpatrick's criticism of individual instruction and emphasize the disintegrating influence of such a system on the personality of the child. On the other hand, those who have organized individual instruction plans believe their plans adequately provide for integrating children's personalities and that the separation of tool subjects and creative activities insures the learning of knowledge needed in life situations and leaves the activities free from the distortion which often takes place when an attempt is made to teach tool subject material through activities.<sup>1</sup> They insist it is the job of the teacher to bring out the relationships between what is being learned in the individualized periods and what is being done in the group and creative activities. Carleton Washburne emphasizes this responsibility of the teacher in the following statement:

There are continual opportunities for the children to apply what they are learning in their individualized periods. Can not the teacher, if she is at all an artist in her work, bring out these relationships all the time? Can she not avoid too sharp a line between the individual work and the group activities? Can she not, as the children start their work on each project, talk to them about the skills they will need?<sup>2</sup>

Many progressive educators are inclined to answer these questions in the affirmative.

The ultra-progressive group, however, are antagonistic to anything that smacks of formal separate subject teaching, and, having an intense enthusiasm for promoting the wholly integrated program, have tended to ride more or less rough shod over such attempts as have been made to individualize the teaching of subject-matter. They have failed to consider the possibilities such plans offer for promoting and perfecting their own program.

#### USE OF INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION MATERIAL IN AN INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

The point of view that carefully organized individual materials, such as those developed at Winnetka and elsewhere, have much to offer the integrated program is worthy of serious consideration. Such materials can be used not only without interfering with the integrated program but can also be of great aid to it. Most progressives agree that even in an integrated curriculum, drill is necessary in certain processes and with certain children. Organized individual instruction materials can contribute to the success of the curriculum

<sup>1</sup>For a complete statement of this point of view read *Adjusting the School to the Child*, C. W. Washburne, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1932. This book describes the techniques involved in carrying on a program of group and creative activities along with individual instruction in the tool subjects.

<sup>2</sup>C. W. Washburne. *Providing for Fundamental Skills in an Activity Curriculum*. Reprint, Winnetka Educational Press.

by giving each child knowledges and skills in accordance with his individual ability to develop them at the time he needs them in an activity. Without such materials it is impossible for one teacher to minister effectively to thirty or forty individual children who need various skills and knowledges in the tool subjects. The only alternative is to teach the needed subject-matter by the traditional class method, leaving slower pupils in a daze while faster pupils are losing interest through lack of challenging work. If self-instructive materials are organized and made available in such tool subjects as reading, arithmetic, language and spelling, each child can be set to work to master knowledges and techniques needed for carrying on the activity. Not only will each child benefit by having the material ready for him at the time he feels the need for learning, but it will be ready in such a form that he can begin at the point which corresponds with his present ability level. Furthermore, such organized material will relieve the teacher of the impossible task of attempting to teach each individual orally and at the same time keep her major interest centered on the activity.

The progressive group should recognize fully the contribution individual instruction in subject-matter has to offer, and to incorporate organized individual self-instructive materials into their scheme of things. Even the most extreme advocates of integrated teaching will concede that knowledges and skills from the traditional subjects should be taught at the time the child feels the need for them. How much more effective teaching may become if organized materials are ready in such a form that each child can be given the work he needs immediately, regardless of what the needs or interests of the other individual pupils may be. Only when the integrated educational program begins to make full use of individual self-instructive materials will such a program be in a position to contribute not only strong social motives but also knowledges and skills sufficient to carry such motives to satisfactory conclusions. If the integrated curriculum is to contribute its maximum toward developing integrated personalities it must be ready to give each child the knowledges and skills he needs when he needs them, and at a rate which is consistent with his ability to acquire them.

## STAMP COLLECTING

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### STAMP COLLECTING—AN EDUCATIONAL HOBBY

Boys and girls can hardly expect to hunt with falcons or race strings of thoroughbreds, but one favorite pastime of kings and presidents is open to them. This hobby is stamp collecting. It is an admirable one from several points of view. It can be easily graduated both in difficulty and expense for young people; it possesses definite educative value; it represents a type of investment rather than a squandering of money; and it represents a type of diversion which is often carried over into adult life.

Since it is based on the natural tendency of acquisitiveness, it is not a difficult hobby to initiate; in fact, most children at one time or another attempt a stamp collection. The reason that more do not continue to follow this hobby actively is due, no doubt, in part, to lack of guidance and encouragement in the critical formative stages. It is here that the school can intercede with an organized hobby program. A stamp club with an interested sponsor will do much to stimulate the perpetuation of this fine hobby.

### NECESSARY EQUIPMENT

The only equipment which the school will need to provide is an up-to-date copy of Scott's *Postage Stamp Catalogue*.<sup>1</sup> It is important that this be a late edition since a considerable proportion of the stamps acquired by children will be current issues. The catalogue is indispensable in classifying stamps as to countries and dates of issue, determining trading values, and explaining the design on the stamp.

Because of its expense and comparative bulkiness to carry about, the school should assume the cost of this item.

A watermark detector and a combined millimeter scale and perforation gauge will also be found very convenient in club headquarters, along with a small bottle of benzine or carbon tetrachloride, since most of the use of these aids in the early stages will devolve upon the club sponsor.

The equipment needed by the boys and girls is simple. Heading the list is, of course, some type of album. The most satisfactory for a beginner is the *International Junior Album*.<sup>2</sup> It provides space for practically all the stamps which the embryo collector is likely to

<sup>1</sup> Scott's Standard Postage Stamp Catalogue. New York: Scott Stamp & Coin Company, Limited. Current volume.

<sup>2</sup> The International Junior Album. New York: Scott Stamp & Coin Company, Limited. Current volume.

possess. It is systematically arranged chronologically and by issues and by giving illustrations of type stamps of each issue, denominations, and colors of each stamp it provides valuable assistance to the novice.

Smaller printed albums are not satisfactory, for the child soon acquires so many stamps for which no space is provided that he must either place them in the margins or start a second book.

For the child who cannot afford the recommended album, the best substitute is a loose leaf ring binder, with unruled paper. Gummed cloth reinforcements are desirable to prevent the pages from tearing out.

Each child should have a package of gummed stamp hinges for affixing his stamps and a pair of tongs for handling them without damage. Later he will need a perforation gauge and a watermark detector, and a small hand magnifying glass will be useful.

Duplicates may be mounted in a notebook or in the back of the loose leaf album.

#### EDUCATIONAL VALUE IN STAMP COLLECTIONS

Part of the educational value of the hobby depends upon proper instruction in the care of the stamps. As an early part of the club program, the sponsor should train the young collectors how to float the stamps carefully from adhering paper, how to cut envelope squares, how to select the lightest cancelled and best centered stamps, how to affix hinges properly, how to handle stamps with tongs, etc.

The sponsor can develop many worth while values from the study of the stamps themselves. First, of course, would come the location of the countries. The album recommended contains a fine set of maps giving the names of all stamp issuing countries and subdivisions. Other children might secure an inexpensive world map and indicate on it the location of all countries from which they have stamps, perhaps by coloring them.

Differences in languages can also be pointed out and clues given for the identification of countries, such as "Sverige" for Sweden, "Helvetia" for Switzerland, etc.

Another interesting feature is the monetary units employed in various countries and their approximate equivalents in our coin.

The *Postage Stamp Catalogue* explains the design on each stamp. Children can gain considerable information from these on the natural history of the country involved, its people and products, its national heroes and history.

There are several interesting special albums in print which trace the history of the United States by the use of our special commemorative issues.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Leslie W. Devereux. *The Stamp Collector's History of the United States*. New York: Blue Ribbon Books, Inc., 1934.

Stamps have an intrinsic value which gradually appreciates. Sponsors would do well, however, to keep the monetary side of collecting in the background. Excellent opportunities are provided, however, to develop habits of fairness and honesty in trading.

#### SUSTAINING INTEREST

Club programs can easily have sufficient variety to maintain interest. They may include talks on the care and selection of stamps, cataloging, map study, conditions which affect the values of stamps, printing processes, monetary systems, peoples and products of various countries, history, etc. Occasionally an exhibit should be planned. The collectors should be taught how to display their stamps artistically and how to plan a specialized exhibit, such as map stamps, animal or bird stamps, national hero stamps, boat, airplane or transportation stamps, products stamps, scenic stamps, etc.

Then, too, adequate provision should be made for time to trade which occupies a large place in the interest of juvenile as well as adult collectors.

If properly managed a stamp club in the elementary school should do a great deal to encourage a hobby which will be of much immediate interest to boys and girls, and which may develop into a worthy lifetime avocation.

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